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GEOGRAPHY
OF
AFRICA SOUTH OF THE ZAMBESI

WITH NOTES ON THE INDUSTRIES, WEALTH
AND SOCIAL PROGRESS OF THE
STATES AND PEOPLES

BY THE

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WITH THREE MAPS

UNDER THE AUSPICES OF
THE ROYAL COLONIAL INSTITUTE

Oxford
AT THE CLARENDON PRESS

1892

Oxford

PRINTED AT THE CLARENDON PRESS,

BY HORACE HART, PRINTER TO THE UNIVERSITY.

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PREFACE

THE Continent of Africa admits of being divided into several distinct areas in which the activities of European nations are being displayed, but in no portion of it is the power of European colonisation, in the truest sense of the word, more visible than in the vast regions which may be distinguished by the general geographical definition of 'Africa south of the Zambesi.' South Africa has ceased to be a country of mere sporting adventure or of aimless wanderings. It is gradually being identified with the European system; and by recent international conventions and agreements under the Salisbury Government, boundaries have been assigned and frontiers surveyed which are likely to be both permanent and beneficial to all contracting parties, on the east as well as on the west coast. Great Britain is deeply pledged in South Africa, and she is concentrating her great colonising energies here rather than, for instance, on the north and north-west of the continent, which she is apparently leaving to her powerful neighbour, France. The Cape Colony, to which attention is more particularly directed in the following pages, and in which we must look for the true interpretation of South African history generally, has been known to European colonists since April 7, 1652, the date of

Van Riebeeck's landing and of the first Dutch occupation; and can boast, therefore, of a far longer history than Australia or New Zealand. In a certain sense the country is more interesting to Great Britain than the Pacific colonies, as she poses here as a direct governing power with absolute and unquestioned control over large native territories. Affairs in this part of the world have quite recently engrossed an unusual amount of public attention in Great Britain. In 1884-5 I wrote a work entitled 'Our South African Empire.' But it was written, as it were, with bated breath, as if one could scarcely dare mention the phrases 'Empire' or 'Imperial control' to English ears in connection with South Africa. Since 1885 there have been many changes. The Warren expedition restored British prestige and gave a new province to the Empire. Gold discoveries have followed upon the wonderful development of the diamond mines, and the line of civilisation and progress is being pushed northwards to the fountains of the Zambesi. By the terms of the Anglo-Portuguese Convention some kind of finality with regard to a vexed international question appears to have been reached on the eastern seaboard, and it will be very interesting to watch both here and in the interior how, during the next ten years, the various colonies, states, and protectorates gradually settle down. I have taken the 1890 statistics as my basis, incorporating also a large number of the 1891 Census Summaries. After a space of fifteen years, an unusually long interval, the peoples in the Cape Colony and Natal have been numbered. The natives have increased, and the native question is, and must continue to be, the great and absorbing political problem in South Africa. For remarks upon

this question, and especially that portion of it which concerns native education, I have drawn freely upon an original paper on this subject read before the Fellows of the Royal Colonial Institute, and printed in vol. xv. of their Proceedings. Together with notices of a more purely geographical character I have introduced many remarks as to the wealth, industries, character, and languages of the numerous races living in South Africa, for which I am indebted partly to the usual and accepted sources at hand for a writer on South Africa, and partly to my own notes and observations collected carefully during a seven years' residence in South Africa itself. There is one great fact which is very conspicuous in that country. It is not a land like North America, to which European immigration is directed on a very large scale; and the statistics of the country prove this. This may be accounted for by the fact that in the Cape Colony at least the land is divided into very large farms held chiefly by Dutch owners, who are extremely tenacious of this form of property. They do not sell up and go north as Americans sell up and go west. Moreover, the land of South Africa, from descriptions given below, will be seen to be of a kind adapted rather to the farmer on a large scale than to the small agriculturist. In the east the teeming Kaffir races occupy the land and provide the labour market of the Colony. Still, there would seem to be a fair number of openings for farmers and agriculturists with a small amount of capital at their command, who may bring down the price of the loaf in South Africa, which is very high. In the towns and mining centres artisans and craftsmen of all descriptions are well paid.

This book is designed to be principally an educational

work for use in schools and colleges, but it may also interest the general reader and intending emigrants. It is written on somewhat the same lines, and with the same intention, as my work on the Canadian Dominion. It has been revised by the Education Committee of the Royal Colonial Institute, to whom, as in the case of Canada, I am indebted for much valuable help and assistance. My thanks are especially due to Mr. J. S. O'Halloran, the Secretary of the Royal Colonial Institute, who has kindly given me many useful suggestions, and also to Mr. Boosé, the Librarian of the Institute, who has placed at my disposal much information gathered from the Library, which is the most complete and by far the most accessible of all London libraries as far as the colonies are concerned.

With regard to authorities, I have found Mr. Theal's 'Compendium' (third edition, revised and enlarged, 1877) very useful as providing the Census Summaries of 1875, and therefore a basis for a comparative review of the state of the Colony in 1891. For historical notices I have referred to 'The Three Voyages of Vasco da Gama' (Hakluyt), 'The Coasts of East Africa and Malabar,' by Duarte Barbosa (Hakluyt), to Moodie's 'Records,' Barrow, Dampier, Leguat, Le Vaillant, with many others of more recent times, such as Wilmot and Chase; also to the various numbers of the 'South African Magazine,' beginning January, 1867, edited by Alfred W. Cole and Wm. Foster, in which the story of early Dutch occupation, as gathered from the Cape archives, is told in serial form, a mode of description reproduced in the 'Cape Monthly' and 'Quarterly' more recently and to great advantage by Mr. Theal, who has given to the world a very useful work adapted from

his 'Chronicles of Cape Commanders.' As an essayist on Cape history generally, Judge Watermeyer is very suggestive, and we may well regret that he did not write more fully on his native land. No colony is more rich in original and consecutive documents. Andrew Sparrmann, the Swedish naturalist and close observer of men and things, has left us some very valuable notices of the state of Cape society towards the end of the eighteenth century, and his narrative has the ring of exact truth about it. The same cannot be said of the Frenchman Le Vaillant, who is fanciful and untrustworthy. His observations as an ornithologist would suffice to condemn him as untrue in small things, and therefore in great. Barrow joins in this universal condemnation of Le Vaillant, but he himself has given us a very valuable topographical and statistical sketch of the country as it existed at the beginning of permanent British occupation in 1806. His preface gives a short review of authorities up to that date. Mr. Theal also furnishes us with a very useful list in his 'History of South Africa' (pp. 373-395).

In a certain fashion, the Cape of Good Hope, as the half-way house between East and West, and a port of call for all nationalities, whether outward or homeward bound, has been more often described, perhaps, in ships' logs and travellers' note-books than any other part of the southern hemisphere, but these descriptions rarely include much information respecting the Hinterland. In this century Kaffir wars have cast a lurid light upon the records of the Colony. Of recent years the names of sportsmen and travellers in South Africa have been legion, amongst whom may be mentioned David Livingstone, Baines, Andersson, Harris, Gordon.

Cumming, Frank Oates, and Selous. For the latest statistics I have drawn largely upon the Preliminary Report of the Director of the Cape Census (1891), the 'Argus Annual,' 1891, the Annual Reports of the Cape Town and Port Elizabeth Chambers of Commerce (1891), the Natal Almanac, Directory, and Register (1891), the Cape Statistical Register, Blue-books, Reports, the columns of the 'Cape Times' (1890-1891), the Proceedings of the South African Philosophical Society, and the Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute; the last-named especially providing, from time to time, most useful commentaries on South African progress.

WILLIAM PARR GRESWELL.

DODINGTON :

January 9, 1892.

CONTENTS



CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION. THE DUTCH AND BRITISH OCCU- PATIONS	PAGE 1-27
---	--------------

CHAPTER II.

AREA. POPULATION. GENERAL POLITICAL DIVISIONS. PHY- SICAL FEATURES	28-48
---	-------

CHAPTER III.

MOUNTAINS. DESERTS. PLAINS. RAINFALL	49-66
--	-------

CHAPTER IV.

RIVERS. LAKES. FORESTS. CLIMATE. SCENERY	67-99
--	-------

CHAPTER V.

THE PROVINCES OF THE CAPE COLONY. THE WESTERN PROVINCE	100-120
---	---------

CHAPTER VI.

THE NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCE WITH THE GERMAN SETTLE- MENTS. THE SOUTH-WESTERN AND THE MIDLAND PRO- VINCES	121-136
---	---------

CHAPTER VII.

THE SOUTH-EASTERN, THE NORTH-EASTERN, AND THE EASTERN PROVINCES. THE DIAMOND FIELDS, OR GRIQUALAND WEST	136-163
---	---------

CHAPTER VIII.

THE CAPE CONSTITUTION. LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND DIVISIONAL COUNCILS. RELIGION. THE UNIVERSITY AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS	163-194
--	---------

CHAPTER IX.

	PAGE
THE SYSTEM OF LAW. THE ADMINISTRATION OF LAW. LAND AND THE TENURE AND SALE OF LAND. LAND SURVEY. NATIVE TENURE. LANGUAGE. DEFENCE	195-221

CHAPTER X.

INDUSTRIES. WEALTH. IMPORTS AND EXPORTS. REVENUE. EXPENDITURE. PUBLIC DEBT. RAILWAYS. TELEGRAPHS. POST OFFICE. TRADE. SHIPPING. SUMMARY	221-254
---	---------

CHAPTER XI.

THE COLONY OF NATAL	255-268
-------------------------------	---------

CHAPTER XII.

THE DUTCH REPUBLICS, THE TRANSVAAL, OR SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC. THE ORANGE FREE STATE	269-285
---	---------

CHAPTER XIII.

NATIVE STATES AND PROTECTORATES	285-307
---	---------

CHAPTER XIV.

MASHONALAND	307-330
APPENDICES	331-386
INDEX	387-400



LIST OF MAPS.

I. MAP OF CAPE COLONY	<i>To face</i> 104
II. MAP OF NATAL	" 255
III. MAP OF BRITISH SOUTH AND CENTRAL AFRICA	<i>At end</i>

GEOGRAPHY

OF

AFRICA SOUTH OF THE ZAMBESI.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION.

1. *The Dutch Occupation.*

(1) THE first European who succeeded in rounding the Cape of Good Hope was the Portuguese captain, Bartolomé Diaz (1486). He commanded an expedition of three vessels sent out by King John II, king of Portugal, with the view of discovering a passage to the East. Diaz encountered such terrible storms off the Cape that he called it Cabo di Totos Tormentos, or the Cape of all the Storms; but this name was afterwards changed to the Cape of Good Hope by King John, because by this route vessels could sail round Africa and trade with the rich markets of Asia. Diaz reached Algoa Bay (September 14), now the site of Port Elizabeth, and by way of annexation set up a cross on the little island of St. Croix, a surf-beaten spot in the Bay itself. By this exploration the Portuguese nation won great glory and profit. The secret of ages was revealed, and it was now known for

certain that the continent of Africa could be circumnavigated. For a long time there were traditions to the effect that the Phoenicians had sailed round the continent, and that Hanno the Carthaginian (c. 1000 B.C.), setting sail from Gibraltar with sixty ships, had followed the line of the African coast and reached Arabia. But this circumnavigation has generally been rejected as untrustworthy, and the furthest point reached by the ancient navigators was probably Cape Bojador.

(2) The cause of geographical knowledge in the fifteenth century was very much advanced by Prince Henry of Portugal, son of John I of Portugal and Philippa of Lancaster, sister of Henry IV of England. When a young man the prince had accompanied his father into Africa on an expedition against the Moors. Here, more especially, he is said to have conceived a passion for geographical research, and hearing much of the secrets of the Dark Continent, made it his lifelong object to unravel them. He established a naval college, and erected an observatory at Sagres, appointing as president James of Mallorca, a man skilled in making charts and instruments¹. The Portuguese sailors became the foremost of the age, exploring the African coast from Cape Blanco to Cape de Verde, and discovering the Cape de Verde and the Azores. In order to secure his country in the peaceful possession of their new territories, Prince Henry procured a Papal Bull 'granting to the crown of Portugal sovereign authority over all the lands it might discover in the Atlantic, to India inclusive, with plenary indulgence to all who should die in these expeditions: at the same time menacing with the terrors of the Church all who should interfere in these Christian conquests.' Prince Henry died on the 13th November, 1473, without effecting his designs of reaching India by way of the

¹ Washington Irving's '*Life and Voyages of Columbus*.'

South Atlantic ; but he bequeathed to his country lasting fame and the opportunity of controlling the commerce of the East, which, for many generations, had come to Europe through Byzantium.

(3) The successful voyage of Bartoloméo Diaz was followed up by Vasco da Gama, the hero of Camoens, who was sent by Emmanuel the Fortunate, the successor of King John, to complete the task of discovery in South Africa. He set sail with three vessels on the 8th of July, 1497, and arrived at the Cape in November of the same year. On the same voyage he discovered Natal, on Christmas Day ('die Natali'), and sailing north up the Mozambique Channel at Melinda, found Arab pilots acquainted with the navigation of the eastern seas. With their aid he crossed to the Malabar coast, and returning by the Cape route reached Lisbon in September, 1499, having been absent a little more than two years. Out of the 170 men who composed his crews only fifty-five returned. Vasco da Gama was ennobled, and received a pension with the title of Admiral of the Eastern Seas, an honour which was declared to be hereditary in his family. For nearly a hundred years the Portuguese availed themselves of the new trade-route to the East, but during all these years they never planted a Settlement on the Cape Peninsula or along the coasts of the Cape Colony. Table Bay was simply a port of call for homeward and outward-bound merchantmen. In 1522 the *Vittoria*, the first ship that ever sailed round the world, arrived there from the East. She was one of a fleet of five vessels which were commanded by the famous Ferdinand Magellan, who reached the Pacific by way of the Straits that bear his name. The Portuguese have done little more than simply discover South Africa. For 400 years they have occupied certain coigns of vantage along the coasts, such

as Delagoa Bay, Quillimane, and the mouths of the Congo and Zambesi ; but their occupation has been of a very precarious nature, often depending upon the good will of their native auxiliaries.

(4) In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries events in Europe were bringing about the destruction of the Portuguese power in the East. In 1580 the crown of Portugal was seized by Philip II of Spain, and all the Portuguese forts and harbours in foreign countries passed into the hands of the Spaniards. But Philip II was not allowed to retain these acquisitions without a challenge. The Dutch had long wished to have a share in the trade of the East, and had sought, under the gallant Linschoten and William Barentz, for the north-east passage by the Kara sea. But these efforts proving unsuccessful, the Dutch determined to fit out stout merchantmen which should dispute with their hated rivals the sovereignty of the Eastern seas. Linschoten himself, who had lived thirteen years in the Indies, and a Dutch merchant called Cornelius Houtman, had long urged their countrymen to this course, representing strongly to them the advantages and wealth that must accrue. The power of Philip II and the Spaniards was in reality very weak in the East, and would fall at the first vigorous attack. Accordingly an expedition of four ships under the auspices of the 'Association of Distant Lands' left Holland in 1595 under the command of Jan de Molenaer. 'These were the first Dutch ships that anchored in Table Bay; and the fruit of the voyage was an alliance with the King of Bantam in Java, where the Portuguese had no settlement,—the foundation of the Dutch power in the East¹.'

(5) The success of this association prompted further

¹ 'Selections from the writings of the late Judge Watermeyer,'
p. 29.

enterprise, and all the seaports vied with one another in prosecuting this new avenue of trade, but, as dangers might come from too great rivalry and competition amongst the Companies, an amalgamation took place, and the great Netherlands East India Company arose. The date of its charter was March 20, 1602. The preamble of the charter was as follows :—

‘Whereas the welfare of the United Netherlands principally consists in trade and navigation, which, from immemorial date, have been pursued from these shores, and from time to time commerce has in a praiseworthy manner increased, not only with the neighbouring countries, but also with the distant nations in Europe, Asia, and Africa ; and whereas, during the last ten years, some of the principal merchants of the Netherlands, engaged in commerce and navigation within the city of Amsterdam, have, at great cost, trouble, and risk established a Company, for the purpose of carrying on a laudable traffic with the East Indies, with good prospect of great profit,—and many other merchants in Zeeland, on the Meuse, in the North, and in West Friesland, have established like companies, for a like purpose ;—we, having considered and maturely weighed of how much importance to the State and its citizens it is, that this commerce should be placed and enabled to flourish on a good footing, under systematic regulations and governance, have thought fit to propose that the said Companies should be united in a firm and certain union, and in such manner that all subjects of the United Provinces may participate in the profits thereof’.—This, then, was the beginning of the Netherlands Chartered General East India Company, which was destined to deal such a fatal blow to Portuguese and Spanish power in the Eastern seas.

(6) The Company began with a capital of £660,000,—a

¹ ‘Groet Placaat Boek,’ vol. i. p. 529.

small sum when we consider the nature of the task before it,—and held the monopoly of trade with the East. It possessed also the power of making treaties with the Indian Governments, building fortresses, appointing generals, and enlisting troops. The Directory, the supreme governing body of the Company, was termed the Chamber of XVII, being composed of eight directors from Amsterdam, four from Zeeland, one each from Enkhuysen, Delft, Hoorn, and Rotterdam, and one chosen by the State. The first fleet, consisting of fourteen vessels under Wybrand van Warwyk, sailed before the end of 1602; the second, consisting of thirteen, sailed in 1603. The Dutch soon acquired most of the trade of China, Ceylon, Malaya, the Moluccas, Sumatra, and Java. They drove the Portuguese from all their ports in the East but Macoa, Diu, Goa, and Mozambique.

(7) For many years Table Bay continued to be simply a port of call for all vessels which found it a convenient half-way house between east and west. Fresh water could be obtained in plenty from the base of Table Mountain, and scurvy-stricken crews could recruit themselves after their long sea voyages; but until 1651 no European power had occupied it. It was in that year that the Dutch East India Company sent out three ships, *Dromedaris*, *Reiger*, and *Hoop*, under Commander van Riebeeck, with instructions to build a fort, just 165 years after the discovery of the Cape by Diaz. The object of the Dutch East India Company was traffic and not colonisation, and by fortifying the Cape Peninsula the most valuable link in their line of communication would be secured. The post-office arrangements at the Cape for incoming and outgoing merchantmen were very primitive, letters and despatches being concealed under stones and in places mutually agreed upon. Two shipwrecked Dutchmen named Jansz and Proot, who had been com-

pelled to spend several months at the Cape amongst the natives, noticed and reported upon the capabilities of the Peninsula as a station. In their memorial addressed to the directors, they had expressed their surprise that the Spaniards and Portuguese had never yet made use of Table Bay to 'lie in wait' for and intercept the argosies from the East.

(8) Generally speaking, England had been indifferent to the value of the Cape. In 1620 two officers of the East India Company, Captain Andrew Shillinge and Humphrey Fitzherbert, took possession of Table Bay in the name of His Majesty James I, and their reasons for doing so are set forth in a document preserved in the archives of the East India Company. They said, 'This great country, if it were well discovered, would be kept in subjection with a few men and little charge, considering how the inhabitants are but naked men, without a leader or policy. We also thought to entitle the king's majesty thereto by this weak means rather than let it fall for want of prevention into the hands of the States, knowing very well that his Majesty is able to maintain his title by his hand against the States, and by his power against any other prince or potentate whatsoever; and better it is that the Dutch, or any other nation whatsoever, should be his subjects, than that his subjects should be subject to them or to any other. . . . Many more particulars might be alleged, as the certain refreshing of your fleets quickly acquired out of your own means by plantation, and to be hoped for from the Blacks when a Government is established to keep them in awe. The whale fishery, besides, persuades us that it would be profitable to defray part of your charge. Time will, no doubt, make the Blacks your servants, and by serving you they will become hereafter, we hope, servants of God.'

Nothing, however, came of this proclamation: the colonial policy of England under the Stuarts being generally weak and irresolute. Moreover, plans of colonisation and settlement in North America may have distracted King James' attention from South Africa. In 1620 he had granted a well-known charter to Sir William Alexander, with power to colonise Nova Scotia and the adjoining country. Also, in 1620, two months after the Pilgrim Fathers had sailed from England, the Council of Plymouth obtained from King James a patent which gave them absolute power over all the land between the 40th and 48th degrees of north latitude. The rulers and merchants of England had long turned their eyes to the western continent, inheriting a feud with the French colonists of the Quebec valley, which was destined to be fought out to the end.

(9) The Netherlands East India Company, when once established at the Cape, held its position unchallenged by any European power. According to the spirit of the times its merchants and directors were strict monopolists, discouraging competition and free immigration. 'The proposition that any free men or burghers, not in the pay of the company, should be encouraged to cultivate the ground was first made about three years after Riebeeck's arrival. Accordingly some discharged sailors and soldiers, who received, on certain conditions, plots of ground extending from the Fresh River to the Liesbeck, were the first free burghers of the colony¹.' This freedom was very much curtailed, and the burghers were compelled not only to submit to many petty and vexatious rules and edicts issued by the Governor, but to pay a large portion of their earnings to the Company. The political equality of their colonists was never for a moment ad-

¹ See Despatch from Riebeeck to Chamber of XVII, 28th April, 1655.

mitted by the Company. The burghers 'were permitted, as a matter of grace, to have a residence in land of which possession had been taken by the sovereign power, there to gain a livelihood as tillers of the earth, tailors, and shoemakers.' The Dutch people, generally, have never taken the same view of colonization as the English, and although they built up a powerful mercantile marine and commanded for a long time the avenues of trade, they never managed to call into existence a Plantation with a self-sufficing and self-respecting life of its own. To the Virginian settlements, and to many of the American colonies, the English Government conceded large powers of local and municipal government from the very beginning. The European population in 1657 consisted of 134 souls, 100 of whom were servants of the Company, ten free burghers, six married women, twelve children, six convicts.

(10) It was not until 1687 that a really important immigration to the Cape Colony took place, and this was of French refugees during the governorship of van der Stell. These men had left their country at the time of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes (October, 1685), and had swarmed into England, Holland, Northern Germany, Switzerland, and the American colonies. The East India Company might have obtained thousands of them, but, as immigration to the Cape on a large scale was not thought advisable, a select few were chosen who might carry on their methods of cultivation, of which the Dutch were ignorant. Within a couple of years ninety-seven families arrived, and were located in the vicinity of Capetown, at Stellenbosch, Drakenstein, Fransch Hoek, and the Paarl. Before leaving Holland they were required to take an oath of fidelity to the Company. These refugees numbered only 300 at first, but their descendants now form a large portion of the population of the Cape. The

French language was introduced to the Cape Colony by these people, but was stamped out so effectually by the Dutch East India Company, that in less than 150 years after the first landing of the refugees not a man spoke it. The only traces that remain are found in the names of certain well-known Cape families and such places as Fransche Hoek, the valley in the western province where so many of the early immigrants lived.

(11) For nearly 150 years (from 1651-1795), the Netherlands East India Company maintained its hold upon Table Bay and the Cape Peninsula, but during this long interval there was little or no real colonial progress in South Africa itself. This period has frequently been passed over as comparatively unimportant and, as far as exciting incidents are concerned, there was little to awake the stagnant life at Capetown. But it was during these years that influences were being brought to bear upon the resident colonists which influenced their character greatly, and resulted in the formation of a certain type of character. The Huguenot refugees who had already sacrificed so much for their faith and liberties, were brought in contact with the autocratic officials of the Dutch East India Company, whom they found hard and exacting masters in all things. The rules and regulations passed by the governing clique at Capetown were petty and harassing. The only chance a burgher had of making money and of improving his position was by selling the produce of the Cape, in the shape of vegetables, fresh meat, milk, and wine, to passing vessels, yet he was debarred from doing this with success by the vexatious rules of the Governor. He was also forbidden to roam far afield in the desert and veldt. On all sides he was crushed, cabined, and confined, and, to escape from thralldom, he fled from the rule of Capetown officials and began to lead that nomadic

life which for many generations has been the distinctive characteristic of the true South African Boer. The habit of 'trekking,' as it was called, became infectious, and in spite of wild animals, savages, and all the dangers of an unknown country, the patriarch Voertrekker, with his flocks and herds, went further and further afield. For more than 100 years they lost touch with the civilised world, and scarcely ever knew the ministrations of a predikant or preacher, still less those of the school-master. Unlike the New England Colonists, who made education a matter of local and even village management from the very beginning, the Dutch and French burghers of the Cape neglected church and school. They took the Bible with them, almost their only literature, and loved to find in the wanderings of the Patriarchs a parallel to their own history. Their contact with the native races kept them keen, alert, and ready to attack or defend as occasion came, and regarding themselves as chosen instruments sent forth to cultivate the land, they looked down upon them with contempt. Thus the Boer, with his Calvinistic faith and dogged self-will, became incapable of all control, and was always wandering outside the pale of the law. His 150 years in the desert converted the Boer, whether Dutch or French, into a keen and crafty pioneer, but an impatient member of an organised State.

(12) In November, 1795, the officers of the Dutch East India Company left Table Bay after an occupancy of 150 years. They were compelled to take this course by the action of the British Government, who were afraid that the post would fall into the hands of the French Government owing to its defenceless state. The United Provinces of Holland had already been overrun by the French armies, and the Stadtholder was forced to take refuge in England. The Cape of Good Hope was re-

garded as a Gibraltar of the southern seas, which any power in Europe possessing strength and influence in the East was bound to protect. Lord North had called the Cape 'the guarantee of our Indian Empire.' Considering the state of affairs in Europe, and the bitter and relentless contest maintained between Napoleon on the one hand and England and the allied European powers on the other, such an act as the formal occupation of the Cape had become an urgent State necessity. Further, it must be remembered that the two British officers, Admiral Elphinstone and General Craig, came out with an order from the Stadtholder directing that the troops, and ships should be received as the allies of Holland. There was some slight opposition at first from the resident Dutch officer, Commissary Sluysken, and his counsellors, the 'Raad politique,' but eventually the forts and the Government castle were given up. The first British governor was General Craig, and the British held the Cape from 1795 to 1803. In this latter year the settlement was restored to the Dutch in pursuance of the Treaty of Amiens, and a certain Commissary de Mist was sent out to administer the country and introduce reforms which time had shown to be very necessary. Again, however, affairs at the Cape were at the mercy of European complications, and whilst the battles of Austerlitz and Trafalgar were being fought, a small fleet under General Baird was making its way across the South Atlantic to the Cape of Good Hope. After a few short skirmishes with the Batavian and colonial forces, Capetown fell a second time into the hands of the British. In 1814 a convention was entered into between the Sovereign of the United Netherlands on the one hand and the King of Great Britain on the other, by which the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope, together with Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, was ceded in per-

petuity to the British Crown. It is recorded in this Convention that this surrender was made as an equivalent for certain charges provided by the King of Great Britain for the defence of the Low Countries and their settlement in union with Holland. Technically, therefore, the possession of the Cape was legalised by the action of the Government of Holland on both occasions, in 1795 and 1806. In reality it was one of the numerous prizes which fell to England for her gallant and successful stand on behalf of the liberties of Europe against Napoleon's ambition and imperialistic schemes.

2. The British Occupation.

(1) The country which thus fell into the hands of England was not regarded at first as very profitable. It was known that the interior was filled with savage tribes, and that its plains swarmed with all kinds of game. In fact no tract of land in the world was more fitted to be a hunter's paradise. Neither the plains of India nor the prairies of the north-west of Canada could vie with it in this particular, and the subsequent travels and adventures of sportsmen and explorers during the greater part of the nineteenth century have given us a whole library of sporting literature. Now South Africa has been explored most thoroughly in most of its wide tracts and hidden mountain recesses, but in 1806 little was known of it. Sir John Barrow, author of 'Travels into the Interior of Southern Africa' (1801), was one of the first to give a topographical and statistical sketch of the Cape and enquire into its importance as a naval and military station, as a commercial emporium, and as a territorial possession. He valued it highly as a possession 'by which our political and commercial interests in the East Indies were effectually secured and promoted.' The

travellers who had hitherto been in the country were scientific men, such as the Frenchman, the Abbé de la Caille, who had been engaged on the arduous undertaking of measuring a base line of 38'802 feet in the flat country of the western coast, in order to determine the length of a degree of a meridian; Andrew Sparrman, a Swedish naturalist, Professor of Physic in Stockholm, who had travelled in the country from 1772 to 1776; Thunberg, another Swede, who had supplemented the botanical labours of Sparrman; and Le Vaillant, a Frenchman, who had written a fanciful account of his travels in the country in 1783-4-5. The Swedes were skilful and indefatigable botanists, but they do not appear to have added much to the geography of the country. In 1806 there were only two maps that could be depended upon; one by de la Rochette, and the other a survey of the country round Algoa Bay, to which part of the country Barrow was directed to pay particular attention with a view to settlement¹. The sea charts were also found to be defective, sufficient allowance not being given to the trend of the land eastward. Barrow fixed the latitude of the Cape point at $34^{\circ} 22'$ south, but the real latitude is $34^{\circ} 47'$ south. The extent of the Cape Colony in 1806 was difficult to ascertain owing to the nomadic life of the settlers; but at Swellendam on the south, and at Graaf Reinet in the north-east, there were two important magistracies.* The Dutch magistrates were called landdrosts, and the residences of the magistrates were called drostdies. The whole white population was computed at little more than 26,000, men, women, and children.

(2) It must be noticed that at the time of the first English occupation in 1795, there was open and declared revolt on the part of the burghers at Swellendam and Graaf Reinet. The 'national burghers' of Swellendam,

¹ Barrow, 'Travels in Southern Africa,' Preface, p. xi.

in a letter addressed to the Governor of the Company at Capetown, desired the removal of unfit officers, 'as they had too long borne the yoke of slavery, and they had resolved to give their last drop of blood for their country and their liberties, and to form themselves under a free Republic.' Many of the burghers' petitions struck at the root of the system of the East India Company. They claimed freedom from all toll and custom, and that they should have a perfect right to sell their produce to whomsoever they chose. 'That commerce shall be perfectly free; that all that commerce introduces into the country shall be freely landed, and all that the country produces shall be freely exported.' Also they claimed 'that any Bushman or Hottentot, whether taken in commando or by private individuals . . . shall remain for his lifetime the lawful property of the burgher with whom he is resident, and shall serve him from generation to generation'.¹ It must be understood, then, that the British Government took over in 1795, and afterwards in 1806, not a Dutch colony, in the popular and accepted sense of the word, but the forts, castle, and possessions of the Dutch East India Company at Capetown, who had a kind of loose control over a few thousands of discontented Boers scattered over an immense range of country from Table Bay to the Fish River. As far as personal liberties and civic rights were concerned, the Cape embarked in 1806 upon a new era. British rule was destined to mean in the end full civic enfranchisement.

(3) One of the first acts of the British Government was to send out a large body of settlers to the Eastern Province. In 1819 the Imperial Parliament voted a sum of £50,000 in aid of immigration to the frontier, and so great was the desire of Englishmen to seek their fortunes

¹ 'Selections from the writings of the late Judge Watermeyer,' p. 145.

in South Africa, that no fewer than 90,000 men applied for the promised aid. Out of these, 4000 were chosen and despatched in twenty-three ships. Port Elizabeth, on the shores of Algoa Bay, as well as all the principal towns of the Eastern divisions of the Cape Colony, are monuments of their industry. The settlement was in itself a military colony placed at the borders of Kaffraria for the purpose of stemming the attacks of the Kaffir races.

(4) For a great many years frontier wars were the principal features of Cape history, and it is by them that South Africa was for more than fifty years best known in England. As the settlers of 1820 advanced along the frontier, their scattered farm-houses, with their flocks and herds, were so many tempting baits held before the marauding Kaffirs, with whom 'cattle-lifting' was an ordinary accomplishment. Sometimes the struggle between the races assumed the proportions of a regular campaign, at other times it was simply a local raid and an individual act of reprisal. Colonists formed themselves in 'burgher commandoes' for the purpose of punishing the Kaffirs, and such commandoes were levied in 1819, 1823, 1829, 1830. The first formidable rising of the Kaffir tribes took place in 1834, when it was calculated that no fewer than 30,000 Kaffirs, under their chiefs Macomo and Tyali (Gaikas), Hintza and Botma (Gcalekas), attacked the whole line of British settlements from the Winterberg to the sea. In 1846 the second severe struggle known as 'the war of the axe' arose. A Kaffir had stolen an axe from a trader's store, and when arrested was rescued by his tribesmen. This war lasted until 1853. Kaffir resistance was not finally settled till the war of 1878, during the governorship of Sir Bartle Frere. The paramount chief Kreli was overthrown, and on the eastern frontier the tribal system utterly destroyed.

When Cetywayo was defeated at Ulundi by Lord Chelmsford the two great centres of native resistance in the south-east of Africa were broken once and for all. The Kaffir or great Bantû race, it must be observed, are completely distinct both from the aboriginal Bushmen of South Africa and the Hottentot clans who have never seriously interfered with our progress in the country.

(5) The Slave Emancipation Act of 1834 had a great effect upon South African history, as it provided the Boers with a grievance. The number of manumitted slaves was reckoned to be 35,745, and their value £3,000,000, as assessed by their owners. The House of Commons voted £1,200,000, but a large portion of it never found its way to the Boer farmers, the money being made payable in England, and obtained with difficulty through extortionate agencies. They were taught, to believe, also that the British Government intended to tax them more heavily, 'and that the Church of the colony was to become Roman Catholic; others were led to believe that by travelling northward they would get to Jerusalem, and that their emigration was necessary to the fulfilment of some parts of Scripture'.¹ It is probable, however, that the Boers wished to carry out those old nomadic instincts which were so strongly implanted in them during their 130 years' sojourn in the desert, and they reasoned, not untruly, that in a Free State of their own they would be able to follow out the lines of their own native policy. Actuated by these considerations, no less than 10,000 Boers crossed the Orange River and laid the foundations of the Transvaal Republic in 1852, and of the Orange Free State in 1854.

(6) When the emigrant Boers crossed the Orange River they made their way eastward to Natal. Travelling

¹ 'South Africa : Past and Present,' by T. Noble, p. 80.

along the uplands of the interior, they came to the ridges of the Drakensburg, and from this natural barrier they looked down upon the wooded kloofs and rolling plains of what is now the colony of Natal. In the distance lay the Indian Ocean and Port Natal, where, 350 years ago, the Portuguese adventurers had cast anchor. 'Here was a seaport and an opening for commerce, and here a fertile land abutting on the sea, and here the descendants of the old Dutch mariners and the French Huguenots might again touch the sea, and create a maritime colony.' But they needed a naval alliance, and so they applied to the King of Holland for protection, setting up a Republic called by them Natalia. The answer of the King of the Netherlands, dated November 4, 1842, is decisive: 'That the disloyal communications of the emigrant farmers had been repelled with indignation, and that the King of Holland had taken every possible step to mark his disapproval of the unjustifiable use made of his name by the individuals referred to.' The British took possession of the Bay, and after some difficulty the Boers were dispersed, their national flag was hauled down, and a formal submission tendered to the British Government in 1842. From this year the colony of Natal dates its existence.

(7) In September, 1849, a ship called the *Neptune*, freighted with 282 convicts, anchored in Simon's Bay. The intention of the British Government was to use the Cape as it had used New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land, viz. as a penal station. Against this proceeding the colonists rose almost to a man, formed an anti-convict association, and 'boycotted' the British ships in the Bay. The Governor of the colony, writing to Earl Grey, represented the firm and indignant attitude of the colonists, and pointed out the danger likely to result. In March, 1849, Sir Charles Adderley (Lord Norton)

moved in the House of Commons that 'out of consideration for the honourable pride and moral welfare of the Cape Colony,' Her Majesty would be pleased to order that the Cape should not be made a receptacle for criminals. The anti-convict agitation marked a period in political history at the Cape, and helped forward considerably the cause of political emancipation.

(8) In 1871 Griqualand West, embracing the Diamond Fields, was created British territory by a proclamation issued by Sir Henry Barkly. The discovery of diamonds in South Africa introduced a new era in the history of the whole continent. Had it not been for the presence of this glittering jewel in the barren and uninviting South African veldt, it is just possible that the whole country would have remained for generations in its sleepy pastoral state. The first diamond is said to have come into the hands of a Dutch farmer named Schalk van Niekerk near the banks of the Vaal River. This was in 1867, but it was not till the close of 1869 that many people were attracted to the Diamond Fields. In March of that year the 'Star of South Africa,' a well-known diamond, sold for £11,000, was obtained from a native sorcerer, who had no idea of its value. When the numerous bands of miners flocked to the Vaal River it was found impossible to keep law and order amongst them except by introducing British authority. The annexation was regarded as unjust by the Free State, who claimed part of the territory included in Griqualand West. At the present time it is calculated that nearly four million pounds' worth of diamonds are dug up every year. A centre of industry was opened up 600 miles distant from Cape Town, and a new entrepôt for trade established. Fresh light was thrown upon South Africa, and new opportunities for wealth revealed. Natives flocked thither as labourers, and, earning wages

for their toil, became purchasers of manufactured goods on a large and increasing scale. The diamond mines did what the well-known copper mines of Namaqualand, discovered some years previously, could not do, and this was to fascinate the imagination of travellers and attract the native labourers.

(9) The increased prosperity of the Cape Colony, and of South Africa generally, had arrested in 1870-6 the attention of the British capitalist, and, as a consequence, that of English statesmen. Where capital and enterprise had preceded, thither the administrator must follow. In 1867 Lord Carnarvon had enjoyed a triumph of statesmanship in seeing the adoption of the British North America Act. Would it not, therefore, be possible to bring forward a South Africa Act which would introduce the federal principle into South African politics? In 1874-5 Mr. J. A. Froude visited South Africa on two occasions with a view of testing public opinion. The idea of South African confederation was not cordially received by the colonists, being novel to them, especially to the Dutchmen. It seemed likely to interfere too much with local liberties. In 1877 Sir Bartle Frere landed at the Cape, invested with ample powers as High Commissioner 'over all territories of South Africa adjacent to the Cape Colony, or with which it was expedient that Her Majesty should have relations.' In 1878 the Gafika-Gcaleka war in Kaffraria was settled. During this war Sir Bartle Frere was brought into conflict with the Cape Ministry on the subject of the military command, the colonial forces wishing to be freed from the control of the imperial officers. The political dead-lock ended in the dismissal of the Molteno Cabinet, and the substitution of Sir Gordon Sprigg as Premier. Imbued with Sir Bartle Frere's views, Sir Gordon Sprigg sketched the outlines of a policy, the main features of which

were a Disarmament Act for the natives, a scheme of frontier defence, the abolition of chieftainship, and the settlement of natives in small locations. He said, 'We shall inaugurate a great South African dominion as a glorious and strengthening part of the British Empire.'

(10) On January 22, 1879, the fatal battle of Isandlwana (field of the little hand) was fought, in which the 24th Regiment was cut up and 1200 men of all ranks were killed by the Zulus. Lieutenants Coghill and Melville rode hard to save the colours of the regiment, and perished in the moment of success. Chard and Bromhead made their celebrated defence of Rorke's Drift, and checked the advance of the Zulus. The event caused the utmost alarm and excitement both in England and abroad. On March 19, 1879, the Secretary of State for the Colonies addressed a despatch to Sir Bartle Frere, reproving him for entering upon a Zulu war without the sanction of the Home Government, but retaining him still as Governor. Sir Bartle Frere was recalled in 1880, and left in September of that year. His administration may be divided into two chief periods, the first being taken up in quelling the Transkei rebellion and re-organising the Gaiikas and Gcalekas; the second in carrying on the war against Cetywayo and the Zulu nation. In June, 1879, Sir Bartle Frere was superseded in his office as High Commissioner of South Africa. In Zululand the crowning battle of Ulundi was successfully fought by Lord Chelmsford, and the country of Zululand divided amongst thirteen chiefs or kinglets by Lord Wolseley. Cetywayo was captured by Major Marter and brought round to Capetown, being confined first of all in the castle at Capetown, and then in a farmhouse called Oude Molen close by. In consequence of an agitation for his restoration, the king was taken to England, and then restored to Zululand. He did not continue to hold his position,

there for long, and died, it is said, of apoplexy. He was by far the most formidable native potentate England had ever met in South Africa, and could command at one time an army of 40,000 devoted warriors.

(11) Sir Bartle Frère was succeeded by Sir Hercules Robinson in 1880, and in December of that year war broke out between the British and the Transvaal Boers. The first Republic of the Transvaal had existed from 1852, the date of the Sand River Convention, to 1877. The Sand River Convention¹, by which England declared a policy of non-interference, was interpreted by the emigrant Boers as placing all the country north of the Vaal River, and inland as far as the equator, under their control. The boundaries, therefore, of the state were of the loosest description. On the eastern portions the natives swarmed in large numbers, and it was owing to a war with a chief called Sekukuni, in 1875-6, that the Republic was brought to the verge of ruin. The native chief, entrenching himself behind his stronghold, or hill-fort, resisted all the attempts of the Boers to reduce him. The Boers could not be persuaded to turn out on command against him, refused to pay taxes for the war, and the whole country promised in a short time to become bankrupt. The branches of the Cape Commercial Bank stopped discounting, and no drafts were obtainable in any place. Ships arrived at Delagoa Bay with railway plant, but there was not a penny wherewith to pay the freight, and even civil servants had to go without their salaries. The President of the Transvaal was François Burgers, and the result of his negotiation for two railway loans, one in the Cape Colony and one in Holland, to develop his country, was a paltry sum of £90,000, instead of £300,000, the amount required. Compared with the

¹ See 'Argus Annual,' p. 54, 1890, and Noble's 'South Africa: Past and Present,' p. 170.

position of Delagoa Bay at the present moment, and the prosperity of the Transvaal, brought about chiefly by British capital and enterprise in developing the Gold Fields, these facts are significant. The Transvaal Boers were helped out of their native difficulties by Sir Garnet (now Lord) Wolseley, who proceeding to Sekukuni's hill fortress with a British force and auxiliaries from Swaziland, carried it by assault. It must be remembered that on April 12, 1877, Sir Theophilus Shepstone, at the head of a few men, had hoisted the British flag at Pretoria. To this proceeding there was little or no opposition at the time from the resident Boers. Partly, however, owing to the disasters of the British in Zululand, and partly in consequence of political agitation, many Boers of the patriot party began to protest formally against the annexation. In England the whole South African question became unfortunately a question of party politics, a fact in our political history of which the Boer leaders fully availed themselves. The result was the Boer war (December 16, 1880), in which the British forces suffered reverses at Bronker's Spruit, Langnek, Ingogo, and Majuba Hill. After Majuba, in which General Sir George Colley was killed, there was an armistice, and the Transvaal was given back to the Boers in 1881, England keeping a nominal suzerainty over the whole country. This suzerainty was shortly discovered to be worse than useless, and in 1884 it was annulled.

(12) In 1884 Basutoland, a rugged but most fertile tract of native territory lying to the east of the borders of the Orange Free State, and from its mountainous character called the Switzerland of South-East Africa, was taken over by the Imperial Government. Basutoland had long been a bone of contention between England and the Free State. The Basutos, consisting of several brave clans, were brought under the tribal system by a chief named

Moshesh about 1820. In consequence of a war carried on against them by the Free State, assisted by many colonists, they were reduced to great extremities, and on March 12, 1868, Sir Philip Wodehouse issued a proclamation declaring the Basutos to be British subjects. This annexation was carried out by Sir H. Barkly in 1876, and the country fell under the control of the Cape Colony. In April, 1880, the provisions of the Peace Preservation Act, passed during Sir Bartle Frere's governorship, were extended to Basutoland, and attempts were made to disarm the Basutos. This nation, alarmed probably at the upshot of the Gaika-Gcaleka war, in which Krelî and his clans were destroyed, resolved to defend themselves in their mountain fastnesses. The Cape colonists endeavoured to enforce the Disarmament Act, but failed to do so. The Basuto war lasted in a desultory way for more than two years, and cost the colony nearly four millions of money. The famous General Charles Gordon went on a pacific mission to the chiefs, but, not having the cordial support of the Cape Government officials, resigned his task. In accordance with the wish of the Cape Colony, and of the Basuto clans themselves, England took over the country in 1884. Since then its record has been that of peaceful progress, the natives paying most of the expenses of their own government, and being brought, little by little, under the influences of education.

(13) In 1884 the German Government, which had hitherto been indifferent to the subject of colonial extension, effected the annexation of the west coast of Africa, from Cape Frio to the Orange River, and the country of the Namaquas and wandering Damara clans. This country had generally been regarded as falling under the influence of the Cape Colony, and for some time past magistrates had been appointed at the kraal or court of the

chief of the Kamahereros, with a residency at Walvisch Bay. The title given to the principal magistrate was 'Special Commissioner to the tribes north of the Orange River.' A diplomatic correspondence took place between Earl Granville and the German officials, but the Germans made good their claims. On June 24, 1884, Prince Bismarck sketched roughly what he conceived the Colonial policy of Germany to be. 'It is not at present,' he said, 'the intention of the Imperial Government to establish colonies with official machinery on the French or English pattern, but wherever private German subjects acquire possessions hitherto without owners, the Government will consider itself under the obligation to give them full protection. No opposition is apprehended from the British Government, and the machinations of colonial authorities must be prevented.' At this time there was an extraordinary activity on the part of the European Governments to secure colonial possessions in all parts of the world, and in the general scramble for Africa all the unoccupied coast lines were declared eventually, both east and west, to come under the jurisdiction of the European powers. The Congo Conference held at Berlin in 1884-5, mapped out a vast Free State in the interior, embracing the valley of the Congo, and reaching nearly as far south as the Zambesi. This Free State sprang originally out of the discoveries of Mr. Stanley, and the enterprise of the International Association, founded in Brussels (1876), to which King Leopold has always given his warmest support.

(14) On September 30, 1885, the colony of British Bechuanaland was constituted. After peace had been made with the Transvaal, and the suzerainty of England had been withdrawn from the country, it was discovered that along the western borders of the Republic freebooters and adventurers from the neighbouring countries were

attempting to set up so-called Republics of their own beyond the control of any power. Two of these mock Republics were Goshen and Stellaland, in the territories of two native chieftains called Mankoroane and Montsioa. Chiefly through the exertions of the late Right Hon. W. E. Forster, public attention in England was turned again to South Africa, to secure order and to protect the chiefs. Sir Charles Warren was despatched with a force of 4000 men to occupy the country. This was done quickly and successfully. The land claims of the squatters were satisfactorily disposed of, and the trade route towards the interior, which had been menaced by misrule and anarchy, secured once and for all. The country of the Bechuanas had been frequently visited by British missionaries, as Livingstone, Moffatt, and Mackenzie, and explored by British sportsmen and naturalists. The official confirmation of England's rule over these regions was abundantly justified in every way, no other nation having any kind of claim comparable with that of this country.

(15) The Bechuanaland expedition, concluded successfully by Sir Charles Warren, has led indirectly to the formation of the British Imperial Chartered South African Company. The vast country lying to the north and east of the protectorate was discovered to be of greater value than many supposed. The wonderful prosperity of the gold mines of the Transvaal had enticed prospecting parties further afield, both over the territories ruled over by Khama, called 'the wise and good,' and over the domains of Lobengula, a more formidable potentate. To the north of the Transvaal signs of rich minerals were discovered in abundance, and it was only natural that British energy and capital, cut off in a certain degree from its full exercise in the Transvaal, should seek a field outside the limits of the Republic. The charter of the British Imperial South

African Company is dated October 29, 1889, in the fifty-third year of Queen Victoria's reign. The 'body politic and corporate' in whose names the charter has been drawn are the Duke of Abercorn, the Duke of Fife, Lord Giffard, Cecil John Rhodes, Albert, Beit, Albert Henry George Grey, and George Cawston. The share capital of the company is set down at a million sterling. It has the power to make and maintain railways, telegraphs, and all other necessary works; to promote emigration and settlement; to grant lands on lease and in perpetuity; in fact, to open up and develop a vast range of territory in the most profitable way. The policy in inaugurating such a company is wise, as it places Great Britain in the forefront of South African progress, and the charter is in itself a strong guarantee that England will no longer treat South African affairs with indifference. Judging, therefore, from the last development in South African history, it would seem as if the whole country south of the Zambesi to Capetown was destined in course of time to become a number of federated states and communities, each with separate and distinct boundaries, but meeting together and agreeing to carry out certain broad lines of policy mutually advantageous to all. Commercial reciprocity must, in some form or other, be the destiny of these South African States. The maritime and inland communities must join hands in a common policy of trade development. The problems of government, especially those relating to native administration and native education, are amongst the greatest ever placed before European colonists. They will task the united skill and knowledge of all the states concerned, and the working out of the numerous class questions before them will elicit the sympathy and attention of all British statesmen and politicians. England has been, and still is, deeply pledged in South Africa.

CHAPTER II.

Area. Population. General Political Divisions.

Physical Features.

(1) If a line be drawn from the mouth of the Cunene River on the west coast of South Africa, to that of the Zambesi on the east, a large triangular-shaped tract of country will be cut off, with an estimated area of 1,200,000 square miles, lying between lat. 18° S. and lat. $34^{\circ} 49'$ S. Roughly speaking, this tract lies across twenty-four degrees of longitude, viz., from long. 12° E. to long. 36° E. of Greenwich, where the line strikes the shore of the Indian Ocean close to the mouth of the Zambesi River! The apex of the triangle is southwards and towards the Land's End of South Africa, which is at Cape l'Agulhas, or 'the Needles.' The continent, instead of making a sharp turn, as in South America, broadens out after the southern extremity is reached, and trends very gradually to the east, so much so that early mariners were constantly out of their reckoning in allowing too little easting to the African shores.

Contrasting this country with the area of the Dominion of Canada, which, including the surface of the great lakes, is 3,600,000 square miles¹, it will be seen to be exactly one-third its size. Compared again with the combined area of the Australasian colonies, estimated at 3,075,030 square miles², it is somewhat more than one-third. Of course it must be remembered that in Africa, south of the equator, the sphere of British influence is

¹ See 'Official Handbook of Canada,' 1890.

² See paragraph 131, 'Victorian Year Book,' 1884-85.

not bounded by the banks of the Zambesi. The Shiré River, the northern affluent of the Zambesi, conducts the traveller to Nyassaland and the equatorial lake system; and even beyond the Victoria Falls, far to the northward, in the Barotse country, and around the first fountains of the Zambesi, British travellers and pioneers are making their way and concluding treaties with native chiefs. The limits of the Congo Free State would appear to be the limits in Central Africa to British Imperial control, and this vast region offers to the British trader, as to all Europeans, endless scope and development. For the present, however, Africa south of the Zambesi seems a sufficiently clear and distinct geographical expression, demanding our closest study and attention, giving us the best clue to the makings of all South African history. The social and political conditions of this tract of country are far more complex than those of Australia. The very position of the Cape on the face of the globe makes it a stepping-stone, as it were, between East and West. Recently, also, South Africa has seemed to be brought within the rivalries, if not within the political system, of Europe, and an African question has quickly become a European question. In its general features South Africa is exactly the reverse of Canada in almost every important particular, as a study of its geography will show.

(2) Within this area the following are the most important colonies, districts, and territories:—(1) *The Cape Colony*, the mother-colony of South Africa; (2) *Natal*; (3) *The Transvaal Republic*; (4) *The Orange Free State Republic*; (5) *Basutoland*; (6) *Zululand*; (7) *Amatongaland*; (8) *Swazieland*; (9) *British Bechuanaland*, with *Khama's* country; (10) *Zambesia*, a loose geographical term for the countries contained in the Zambesi valley, both north and south of the river: within the limits of South Zambesia lie *Mashonaland*, the sphere of operation

of the South African Company, *Manicaland* and *Matabililand*, the territory of the paramount Matabili chief, Lo Bengula; (11) The *Portuguese Colonies* at the eastern seaboard from Delagoa Bay to the Zambesi route, including *Gazaland*; (12) The *German Protectorate* of *Ovampoland*, *Damaraland*, *Namaquidland*, on the west coast.

Of these colonies and territories some are maritime and some are inland. The *Cape Colony* has the longest sea-board, extending all round South Africa from the Orange River on the west coast to the Umtata River on the east. *Natal* also has a fairly long coast-line in proportion to her size, and *Zululand*, *Amatongaland*, as well as the *German* and *Portuguese* settlements, touch the ocean. The inland states and territories are the *Transvaal Republic*, the *Orange Free State Republic*, *Basutoland*, *Swazieland*, *Bechuanaland*, and, in *Zambesia*, *Mashonaland* and the country of the *Mutabilis*. The possession of a coast-line involves great advantages to a South African state, the opportunity of raising revenue by Customs on imported goods being always one of its natural opportunities; and, for colonies in their first stages, the Customs are naturally the main source of income. In a certain sense the inland state is at the mercy of the maritime state, unless self-interest induces the latter to grant a drawback on imported goods to the former. 14599

(3) On the subject of the population, both European and native, of the above-mentioned colonies and territories, it has been always difficult to arrive at accuracy. Unlike the Canadian and Australasian Governments, the South African Governments have made few efforts to number and classify up to date the populations under their charge. Moreover, it is well known that it is notoriously difficult to number the natives, who imagine that a census summary in some form or another is a conspiracy against their persons and property by the white

man. In some of the older and better organised communities it is possible, however, to arrive approximately at the truth. The *Cape Colony*, which, with the districts on the east, known as the Transkei, Tembuland, and Griqualand East, has an estimated area of 221,311 square miles, is now (1891) found to contain a population of 1,524,127, of which a large portion—no less than 75 per cent. belong to the native and coloured classes—are natives. Hitherto it has been impossible to discover the relative proportions of English and Dutch colonists in the Cape Colony, as no census regulation has required a specific return of nationalities to be made. Some years ago it was supposed that the English numbered not more than one-third of the European population; but it is probable that, owing to immigration and natural increase, they now comprise nearly half of the whole white population. The following Table shows approximately the growth of population at different periods since 1875:—

TERRITORIES.	1875.	1880.	1885.	1891.
1. Cape Colony proper, with Griqualand West (annexed 1880)	720,984	876,080	971,940	1,036,822
2. The Transkei and Native Territories	154,531	260,906	338,370	487,305
	875,515	1,136,906	1,310,310	1,524,127

(4) In Natal the European colonists number about 43,861, in the midst of a swarming native population within their borders of more than 450,000, and an imported Indian element of more than 35,000. The whole of the population lives on the comparatively small area of 20,000 square miles. The Transvaal or South African Republic, with an area of 120,000 square miles, is said to contain a European population of at least 119,128 souls, of whom 60,000 are said to be of Afrikaner origin, and

60,000 of English or some other European nationality. The natives are variously computed at figures varying from 750,000 to only 300,000¹. The *Orange Free State*, with its area of 70,000 square miles, is said to number 206,600 inhabitants, of whom 77,000 are white, and 129,600 coloured. It is absolutely impossible to do more than guess at the number of natives in the more purely native territories. *Pondoland*, with its area of 5700 square miles, is said to contain more than 200,000 Pondos; *Amatonga* and *Swaziland* more than 150,000, among whom there were last year (1891) no more than 500 European residents.

(5) Sufficient, however, has been stated with regard to the population of these various South African States and territories to prove that the natives largely outnumber the white population, and that, being freed from internecine war and the cruel raids of bloodthirsty despots who reigned in former days, they thrive and multiply to an alarming extent. One of the most recent historians of the Cape has testified to their remarkable increase. He remarks: 'The very rapid increase of the Bantû population of South Africa has attracted general attention, and is continually brought in the most forcible way to the notice of the different Governments by the demand for more ground on which to live. . . . Between the Kei and the Umzimvubu the people of the different tribes have certainly more than doubled since 1857.' And again: 'In 1839 the highest estimate of the Bantû population between the Umzimvubu and the Tugela,—including the greater part of the present colony of Natal, Eastern Pondoland, and a large portion of Griqualand East,—was under 10,000 souls. In 1889 there were nearly a million of that race on the

¹ See 'Argus Annual,' 1890, p. 331.

same ground. . . . Everywhere throughout the region stretching from the Limpopo River to the shores of the Indian Ocean, there has been a tendency on the part of the Bantû population during this period to occupy the vacant places, just as water flows into cavities, and this tendency is in full force. It may appear in some localities as if the numbers were stationary, but upon close enquiry it is only found that they appear so because swarms have periodically migrated to other grounds. The great uninhabited wastes that every traveller of half a century ago described are now teeming with human life. That the Bantû population in South Africa from the Limpopo to the sea has trebled itself by natural increase alone within fifty years, is asserting what must be far below the real rate of growth¹. What Mr. Theal here advances is corroborated on every hand by residents, traders, missionaries, and magistrates in the various Transkei and other districts where Kaffirs congregate.

(6) It will be seen that Africa south of the Zambesi is remarkable for the number and variety of its States and Territories, both European and native. This circumstance alone would make the political geography of the country unusually puzzling. Corresponding, also, to the great variety of geographical definitions, there is a diversity of rule and administration, varying from the advanced methods of civilised Europeans to the rough and ready systems of savage chiefs and despots. The *Cape Colony* has for 19 years been administered by a responsible Government; *Natal* has a representative, but not, as yet, a responsible Government; the *Transvaal* and *Free State* are both under a Republican form of government, with a President at their head. *Damaraland*, *Namaqualand*, and *Ovampoland* fall under the autocratic rule of the

¹ Theal's 'History of the Republics of South Africa,' 1889, p 404.

German Colonial Office; the Portuguese littoral on the east coast is governed by the methods peculiar to the authorities at Lisbon, who often employ native officials and mercenaries to rule the natives. The British South Africa Company stands in exceptional relations to Matabililand and Mashonaland in Zambesiā. With regard to *Pondoland*, *Basutoland*, *Bechuanaland*, *Zululand*, *Amatongaland*, *Swazieland*, they are all native territories falling more or less under the direct rule of the Crown, and are an object of especial care to Her Majesty's High Commissioner of South Africa, who is also Governor of the Cape Colony. It is purposed, however, to deal subsequently with these States and Territories in the order given, and to enlarge upon their political and social peculiarities. But, at first, and by way of introduction, it seems desirable to gain some definite ideas concerning the physical features of Africa south of the Zambesi, both by sea and land.

(7) *Physical Features.* The first natural feature of a new country that generally comes in sight is its coastline, and the traveller always looks with great curiosity upon this. As the Cape-bound steamer ploughs her way through the waters of the South Atlantic in the direction of Robben Island,—not far from the entrance of Table Bay, the point generally made by outward-bound steamers,—the first appearance of the African coast on the port side of the ship is of a low and somewhat uninviting description. But, looking southward, it is just possible that, far down on the horizon, a white and dome-shaped mass of fleecy clouds may be seen. From a distance it seems to have no connexion with mother earth, but the practised sailor knows that its very presence argues land, and that this cloud is, in fact, none other than the table-cloth of Table Mountain. Little by little, the white mass seems to rise, and, little by

little, the form of the mountain ridge comes into sight, and the traveller knows that he has cast eyes upon this famous mountain, which lifts itself across the waters and, eighteen miles lower down towards the south, ends in the far-famed Cape of Good Hope.

In the words of the great Portuguese poet, Camoens, it seems to say :—

- ‘I am that hidden mighty head of land
The Cape of Tempests fitly named by you,
Which Ptolemy, Mela, Strabo never fand,
Nor Pliny dreamt of nor old sages knew.
Here in South Ocean’s end I Afric strand !
Where my unviewed Point ye come to view
Which to the far Antarctic Pole extendeth—
Such he your daring rashness dire offendeth.’

Lusiad, v. 37. Burton’s Translation.

This ‘head of land’ is about 6,000 miles from Plymouth, and this distance, which the early mariners took six months to traverse, is now covered by an ocean-going steamer of the nineteenth century in fifteen days. This headland is certainly the most striking as it is the most historical point of the west coast. A nearer acquaintance with the coast-line of the north-west province of the Cape and of Namaqualand and Damaraland will reveal long and monotonous stretches of white sand, and all the unwelcome features of a dry and scrubby shore. Here the land appears to simmer in a perpetual sunshine. In some parts of this coast the curious phenomenon of the mirage is frequently met with. Along Damaraland and Namaqualand rain seldom falls, the total rainfall at Port Nolloth for the year 1888 being only 2·48 inches¹.

(8) It is not until the Cape Peninsula is reached, and the spurs of Table Mountain are seen, that the cliff scenery

¹ ‘Argus Annual,’ p. 30.

appears bold and picturesque. Towards the south the lighthouse at Cape Point, standing at the extremity of the Cape Peninsula, is built at a lofty elevation of 816 feet above the sea-level, and is one of the highest lighthouses in the world. As the traveller proceeds round the coast eastwards, the general aspect of the interior will appear more inviting. The eye will rest upon almost a continuous range of mountains and highlands following the direction of the shore, dissipating the first notion that may have been gathered from the accounts of African deserts and the first sight of the north-western coasts. Along the south coast, and in the neighbourhood of the division of George and the Knysna, the evergreen slopes of the distant Outeniqua Range will be seen, and, beyond them, the picturesque bays and wooded kloofs or combes of the Zitzikamma; then the line of wooded country, known as the Addo Bush, flanked by the tall Zuurberg in the distant north. Further on, in the regions of Kaffraria and Pondoland, there is the striking and park-like scenery of the coast, where tumbling rivers rush down from the hill-sides, and stately trees grow in detached groups, and the slopes look green and pleasant. Then the borders of Natal are reached, and the tall bluff that guards the town of Durban comes into sight in about latitude 30° S., one of the most striking and attractive scenes of the whole seaboard. Different indeed is the aspect of this active English seaport from the sluggish and inert life of the Portuguese harbours further to the north, where for centuries the pulse of enterprise has been slow, and the Portuguese officials have lived a precarious existence on their islands and forts.

(9) *Ocean Currents and Winds.* Cape l'Agulhas, $34^{\circ} 49'$ S., is the meeting-place of two great ocean currents, (1) the Mozambique, or, as it is sometimes termed, the Agulhas

current, which sweeps down the Mozambique Channel, and follows the curve of the South African coast, and brings with it the warm waters of the Indian Ocean; (2) the Antarctic or Cape current, which comes up from the cold regions of the South. Cape l'Agulhas, as may be seen from the map, is a prolongation of that apex of land which terminates the African continent, and is noted for its deep shelving banks, dangerous navigation, and continual tempests. The warm waters of the Mozambique current are felt in False Bay on the south, and the cold waters of the Antarctic current sweep into Table Bay on the north, the difference between them being sometimes more than five degrees. This corner of the world is noted for its rough weather, and sailors observe¹ that the storms which the Agulhas current calls forth come rushing from the westward, and sweep along parallel with the coast. Coming into these waters with furious speed, they reach them with a low barometer, and then pause and die out, giving rise, however, to the most grand and terrible displays of thunder and lightning that are to be witnessed. Along the east coast of Africa, from Algoa Bay to Natal, there is a counter-current setting northward along the shores, which allows a steamer to steer close to Kaffraria and Natal on her journey upwards. On her return voyage she will have to keep far out to sea to gain the advantage of the Mozambique current. This current has a velocity sometimes of two or three miles an hour.

(10) The prevailing winds along the coasts of South Africa are the south-east in summer and the north-west in winter. The south-easter of Table Bay, which blows so persistently for days together along the streets of Cape-town, is an extension of the south-east trade-wind. It

¹ Report of Captain Hepworth, F.M.S.

is generally a clear dry wind, and, whilst it blows, atmospheric pressure is high. One sign of it is the well-known cloud-cap or table-cloth of Table Mountain, but sometimes in autumn the top of the mountain is quite clear, and then the wind is known as a 'blind south-easter,' and is very violent. It often happens that the south-easter of Table Bay is a local wind, and that a ship, once past Cape l'Agulhas, loses it altogether. The most destructive storms in Table Bay have come from the north or north-west in May and June along the east coast, and during the summer, namely, from October to April, south-easterly winds prevail between the Kowie River and Table Bay. Along the inland ranges, such as the Zuurberg and Boschberg, their advent is marked by the appearance of thin films of mist and thickening fog at certain elevations, with a sudden lowering of temperature which makes mountaineering dangerous for strangers in South Africa. For the mariner the most dreaded gales are those which come from the south-west and north-west in winter along the coast. During October and November fierce north-west gales, lasting for days, and raising mountainous seas, are experienced, especially between Cape St. Francis and Cape l'Agulhas. In the continent of South Africa the most remarkable wind the landsman will feel is that which comes howling down from the barren spaces of Namaqualand and the Kalahari Desert, sweeping from the north. Livingstone thus describes it : 'It feels somewhat as if it came from an oven, and seldom blows longer than three days. It resembles, in its effects, the Harmattan of the north of Africa ; and at the time the missionaries first settled in the country, thirty-five years ago, it came loaded with fine red sand. It is so devoid of moisture as to cause the wood of the best-seasoned English boxes and furniture to shrink, so that every wooden article not made in

the country is warped. This wind is in such an electric state, that a bunch of ostrich feathers held a few seconds against it becomes as strongly charged as if attached to a powerful electric machine, and clasps the advancing hand with a sharp crackling sound.' This is the wind that travellers in the veldt know so well, which rushes with strange, unvarying moan over the desert, raises the dust clouds, and sweeps amongst the acacia bushes. In the winter, especially at high elevations, this wind can be extremely piercing and cold. Mr. Gamble, the late meteorologist at the Cape, has observed about this wind that 'it seems to be a similar meteorological phenomenon to the south-west wind of Western Europe, called the Return Trade by Halley 200 years ago, but perhaps more correctly called the Anti-Trade by Herschel¹.' It comes apparently from that part of the Equator which is occupied by the sea, and is well known in Table Bay as a moist wind. In the Eastern Province the north-west, coming over the vast expanse of desert in the north, is, as already described, a dry wind.

(11) The latitude of Cape l'Agulhas being $34^{\circ} 49'$, the icebergs from the Antarctic circle do not find their way thither. Mariners encounter them as high up as the parallel of 37° S., and the belt of ocean on the polar side of 55° S. is never free from them. They are found in all parts of it the whole year round, and are sometimes many miles in extent, and, coming from some vast and unknown reservoir in the Antarctic region, are hundreds of feet thick. Consequently, vessels bound to Australia from the Cape of Good Hope never dare to go on the polar side of 55° S. The 'brave west winds' of these latitudes, which are such a wonderful help to the mariner, meet the southern icebergs, which are often

¹ 'Transactions of the South African Philosophical Society,' vol. i. part 2.

very large and high, and driving against them deflect them to the eastward. Notwithstanding, these southern icebergs approach the Equator nearer than the northern, which are melted by the Gulf Stream; and, comparing latitude with latitude, the southern hemisphere is colder than the northern.

The Cape waters have an evil fame attached to them. Diaz, the first discoverer, was swept away by them in a storm, probably in a September gale coming from the south-east, and the *Cabo di Totos Tormentos* became a byword. Table Bay has proved a dangerous anchorage, and, time after time, vessels have been driven ashore there. In 1856, and again on a memorable 17th of May, 1865, a whole fleet was wrecked, no less than fifteen ships being destroyed on the latter occasion within twelve hours, and with a loss of sixty lives. Round the coast the wreck chart tells a sad tale. On July 17th, 1754, the 'Doddington' was broken up on one of the Bird Islands off Algoa Bay; on August 4th, 1782, the 'Grosvenor' was lost on the coast of Kaffraria, some of the wretched crew only escaping from the wreck to fall into the hands of the Kaffirs. On February 26th, 1852, the wreck of the troopship 'The Birkenhead' on Danger Point gave to England, in the noble conduct of the soldiers on board, a glorious tale of heroism.

(12) *Bays*. Following the coast-line from west to east, the voyager will be struck with the almost entire absence of natural harbours, a fact which may in great measure explain the large number of shipping disasters round the Cape. The first bay of importance on the west coast is Walvisch Bay, in the centre of the German littoral, belonging to England, and lying in lat. $22^{\circ} 54' S.$, and long. $14^{\circ} 40' E.$ Walvisch (or 'whale-fish') Bay was resorted to in the first instance by whalers from the north, who found a profitable field for their operations

in Cape waters. Between Walvisch Bay and the mouth of the Orange River are a few small coves and anchorages, such as Sandwich Harbour, Angra Pequena, brought into such notice in Lord Granville's negotiations with Germany, when that nation proclaimed their protectorate over Damaraland. Further on are Elizabeth Bay, Van Reenen's Cove, and Angras Juntas. Perhaps the best anchorage along this coast is found between Ichaboe Island and the mainland. South of the Orange River there are two isolated peaks which serve as a landmark for Cape Voltas, where small craft can find anchorage. Further south is the better-known *Port Nolloth*, formerly known as *Robben* or *Seal Bay*, much used by the Cape Copper Company. It is simply an indentation in the coast, about two miles in length, with a low reef of rocks lying across its mouth, a small island inside acting as a breakwater. Further south is *Hondeklip Bay*, lat. $30^{\circ} 20'$ S., long. $17^{\circ} 19'$ E., meaning in Dutch a dog-stone, from the resemblance of a large boulder of granite there to that animal. *Donkin's* and *Lambert Bay* are two small places off the Clanwilliam coast, before the broad curve of St. Helena Bay is reached, where the Berg River can be ascended by small craft for a few miles. Next in order is *Saldanha Bay*, the best natural harbour in South Africa, and accessible at all times. Unlike the other bays and inlets along the west coast, which are exposed to the north-west gales, this bay is securely landlocked. But it lies out of the way of vessels, lacks good water, and is seldom used.

(13) *Table Bay*, on the north of the Cape Peninsula, is the first great port of call for ocean-going vessels from Europe, and resembles in general features St. Helena Bay. The sweep and curve of the inner shores have been likened to those of the Bay of Naples. The lofty *Tafelberg*, or *Table Mountain*, flanks it on the west, and

on the south it is bounded by the Cape Flats. It is needless to say that this naturally most dangerous and exposed anchorage has been converted into one of the safest and most convenient ports in the world. Following the coast on the west side of the Cape Peninsula, Hout or Woody Bay will be seen, formerly an anchorage of some importance, having been occupied and fortified by the Dutch, who have left behind them old forts and old cannon. When Cape Point is doubled, the large and spacious waters of False Bay come into view, sheltered from the north-west gales of winter, but exposed to the south-east. On the western side of False Bay, in a sheltered nook, is Simon's Bay, Her Majesty's only naval station in South Africa, and a post of great importance, called, not unreasonably, the Gibraltar of the Southern Seas. If the Suez Canal were blocked in time of war, it has been pointed out that the whole trade of the East from India, Australia, and perhaps China, Japan, and the Straits Settlements, would be driven round the Cape. The old route would thus be restored, but the value of merchandise on the seas exceeds many fold that which it was before. At the present time it is calculated at an annual value of 1000 millions. The duties of Imperial defence at the Cape of Good Hope would then be extremely heavy against a hostile naval force.

(14) Within False Bay, a bay distinguished for its broad curve and sandy beach, extending for miles from west to east, there are Kalk Bay, a fishing cove a few miles from Simon's Bay, and Gordon Bay, on the eastern side. This bay is much used as a summer and seaside resort by Capetown residents. Between Cape Hangklip (hanging rock) and Danger Point, the scene of the shipwreck of the 'Birkenhead,' are the two small openings of Sandown Bay and Walker Bay. Close by is Port Durban. Beyond Cape l'Agulhas is Struis or Ostrich Bay, and St.

Sebastian Bay. Behind Cape St. Blaize is Mossel Bay, considered the safest anchorage in the Colony after Saldanha and Simon's Bay. To the east of Walker Point is Knysna Harbour, a land-locked estuary, into which a passage lies between bold rocks. The tide enters through a narrow passage, about 160 yards wide, and spreads out over a large expanse of flats, giving a channel of not more than twelve feet, so that only small vessels can enter. This is by far the most beautiful and picturesque harbour in the Cape Colony. The country between Cape Seal and Cape St. Francis is covered with the noble woods and forests of the Zitzikamma, and Plettenberg Bay is the most convenient place along this tract for shipping timber. The proximity of the mountains to the sea, and the prevailing winds, cause thick fogs and mists along this part of the coast, which is considered extremely dangerous. Here a current from the sea frequently sets dead on the shore. At Cape St. Francis the mountain range dies away, and at the mouth of the Kromme River is a decent anchorage.

(15) Cape Recife, the next promontory to the east, forms the western arm of Algoa Bay, and is a low rocky point with reefs running out far into the sea. Algoa Bay itself is a broad open bay, exposed to the fury of the south-east gales, against which the islands of St. Croix and the Bird Islands offer some shelter. The inhabitants of Port Elizabeth have spent vast sums in trying to create a harbour, as the trade there is very great, and the harbour nearer to the great markets of the interior than Table Bay. But hitherto their efforts have been a failure. From Cape Recife, lat. 34° , long. $25^{\circ} 36' E.$, the African coast trends very rapidly towards the north-east, past Cape Padrone and Port Alfred at the Kowie Mouth. Here is a little estuary, where the tidal waters, entering by a narrow channel, spread over a flat some

acres in extent. The river inside the bar is navigable for small craft for two or three miles, and piers have been built seaward. The minimum depth at the bar outside is 8 ft. 6 in. at low water of the spring tide. Beyond the mouth of the Great Fish River there is a small bay called Waterloo Bay, a dangerous open anchorage which was much used for the purpose of landing Government stores in the war of 1856-7; but it is now abandoned.

(16) The next harbour of importance passing up the coast is that of East London, at the mouth of the Buffalo River. Here, as elsewhere along these coasts, exists the fatal bar of sand outside the harbour, which prevents vessels coming inside. Occasionally a freshet down the Buffalo River will sweep away the obstacle and disperse it in the sea, and vessels drawing seventeen feet of water can come in; but the temporary channel soon silts up again, and the bar is as formidable as ever. Upon the advice of Sir John Coode, training-walls forming quays have been built along the mouth of the Buffalo, so as to narrow the river channel, and thus increase the scour; and a breakwater of concrete blocks, like that of Portland, has been constructed, forming an arm outside, so as to prevent the sea from checking the river's overflow and driving the sand back upon the bar. Nearly half a million of money has been spent upon it already, and it is expected that ultimately there may be twenty feet of water on the bar at high water. In former days the only method of landing was by means of surf boats, which were both dangerous and uncomfortable. The coast between East London and Port Natal runs nearly straight from south-west to north-east, and is very little indented or broken. Numerous streams and rivers find their way seaward from the neighbouring mountains, and here and there, as at Mazeppa Bay, north of the Great Kei River,

and at St. John, at the mouth of the Umzimkulu, in Pondoland, small vessels have occasionally entered ; but there is no harbour deserving the name.

(17) Port Natal is the most sheltered and land-locked harbour between Table and Delagoa Bays. It is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles long and $2\frac{1}{4}$ miles across inside, and about 600 yards wide at the entrance. On the south side of Port Natal is the well-known Natal Bluff. There is a bar of sand here which has taxed all the skill and energy of marine engineers, and the great problem of Durban, the chief town of Natal, is to make a commodious and efficient harbour. To effect this an extraordinary amount of skill and perseverance has been called into play, the Harbour Board having set themselves with the keenest and most dogged determination to make their harbour accessible to all ships in all weathers and at all times. The harbour works consist of two piers, the north of which consists of a monolithic wall 1905 feet in length. The two walls of the south pier, beginning from the Bluff, with an interval of 391 feet between them, gradually approach and become one work. The difficulty which the marine engineer has to contend with is found in the enormous quantities of floating sand drifted upwards along the shore back-flow of the great Mozambique current. In 1888 thirty-three vessels of over fifteen feet draught entered the harbour.

(18) In Zululand, north of the Tugela, there is Port Durnford, a place used to land war materials during the Zulu war, and at the northern extremity, before Amatongaland is reached, there is the broad shallow lagoon of St. Lucia Bay, a malarious spot and of little present use. Here and there along the Zululand coast are said to be spots which can be converted into landing-places and utilised for the purposes of traffic, but it is impossible that any port in Zululand can ever compete with Durban

on the south, and Delagoa Bay on the north. In Amatongaland the mouth of the Kosi River is said to offer some natural advantages.

(19) Delagoa Bay is acknowledged to be the finest harbour in South Africa. Thousands of vessels could anchor there, and it has sufficient depth at low water to allow vessels to cast anchor close to the shore. The bay, which looks northward, lies behind Inyack Peninsula, the width from Cape Inyack to the mainland being twenty-five miles. Its length is about seventy miles, between lat. $26^{\circ} 20'$ and $25^{\circ} 2'$ S. Between Inyack Island and Inyack Peninsula a line of shoals extends called the Catfield, Dommett, Hope, and Cockburn; but between these shoals deep channels exist.

(20) Between Delagoa Bay and the mouth of the Zambesi River the coast-line is more uneven and broken than further south, and here and there are seen groups of islands off the coast. North of Cape Corrientes is Inhambane Bay, lying just outside the Tropic of Capricorn, and past Cape San Sebastian, lat. 22° S., the latitude in the interior of the northern boundary of British Bechuanaland; and to the north of Cape Maria, at the mouth of the Sabi River, lies Sofala. North of Sofala is the mouth of the Pungwe River, the nearest point to Mashonaland, where a port may soon be created. From this point the coast trends north-east to the Zambesi River.

From this brief survey of the coast-line of South Africa, from the Cunene River on the west to the Zambesi River on the east, it will be seen how true is the assertion that there is scarcely a natural harbour deserving the name, and fit to hold vessels of deep draught. The bays on the west coast usually face northwards, with wide unprotected entrances, as St. Helena Bay and Table Bay. On the south they are invariably exposed to the fury of the south-east gales, and wherever

there is a natural entrance up a river, it is generally either very shallow or blocked altogether by bars of sand. There are no public works more important in South Africa than harbour works, and there is probably no coast in the world which for so many years has baffled the skill of the marine engineer. Neither tide nor river action helps to clear the entrances. The rise and fall of South African tides only varies from four to six feet, and the volume of water brought down by the rivers is an uncertain, variable, and often very meagre quantity. Table Bay has been made secure only after a vast expenditure of money and labour; East London and Durban are still struggling manfully with their harbour difficulties.

(21) South Africa, therefore, without navigable rivers and good natural harbours, has been severely handicapped in the race. At Port Elizabeth large sums of money have been spent on harbour works which might just as well have been thrown into the sea. But if this part of the continent had possessed a harbour like that of Rio di Janeiro, or a river like the Plate, or the St. Lawrence, or the Mississippi, her position and fortune might long ago have been very different. The natural advantages of a country like Canada over South Africa are obvious at a glance. It will be seen, also, that there are other circumstances which have hindered South Africa in the task of development. Saldanha Bay on the west coast, which is a fair harbour naturally, lies out of the line of communication, and has no large fresh-water supplies. The Knysna Harbour, on the south, which might have been, from its central position, a depôt for trade, is only adapted for small craft, whilst the Hinterland has seemed to be fenced in by impenetrable woods. Delagoa Bay, which has risen greatly in importance lately owing to the development of the

Gold Fields, is in the possession of the Portuguese, who have never done anything yet to advance in a substantial way the prosperity of South Africa. From its position Delagoa Bay should be the natural outlet of a large portion of South-east Africa.

(22) As might be expected, there are few peninsulas or islands off the coast of South Africa. The only ones deserving notice are the tract of land between Saldanha and St. Helena Bay, and the Cape Peninsula, which is in reality a mountainous ridge stretching nearly north and south for thirty-five miles. There is no peninsula on the south coast. On the east there is a peninsula in Zululand, formed by the sea and the waters of the St. Lucia Lake; and in Amatongaland there is a tongue of land lying north and south along the coast, with a lagoon on the western side and the ocean on the east. In Delagoa Bay waters there is the Inyack Peninsula forming its right arm.

CHAPTER III.

Mountains. Deserts. Plains. Rainfall.

(1) *Mountains.* In the numerous descriptions of Africa, and of South Africa especially, the mountain system of the country has either been left out of sight or only partially described. Yet the traveller in that country is generally within view of them, and they are in themselves most imposing and picturesque features in the landscape, visible in that clear atmosphere for enormous distances. Even in the Cape Colony and close to Cape-town there are most noble gorges. None of them, however, reach the limit of perpetual snow, and so the valleys of South Africa are deprived of that storage of water which other countries possess. As a general rule, the mountains of South Africa follow the curve of the coast-line. They also rise in distinct terraces and ridges from the sea-coast to the interior, where elevated plateaux, from 4,000 to 6,000 feet in height, are the rule. Perhaps the best idea of the gradual rise of the South African continent in distinct terraces might be gained if a traveller were to land at Mossel Bay on the south coast and journey northwards towards the interior. Immediately facing him he would see a coast range, up which he would find his way through the Montagu Pass into the George district. Here a second range of considerably higher mountains called the Zwartebergen would interpose a barrier to the north, through which he would penetrate by Meiring's Poort or Pass. Here he would stand upon the plateau of the Great Karroo. Further north still, however, he would

see a third range called the Nieuwveldt Mountains, past which he would go by Nel's Poort, a defile which the railway engineers have utilised for the Western Railway from Capetown to Kimberley. Or a similar impression of the rise of land would be gained if the traveller were to take a railway journey from Capetown itself to Nel's Poort, and notice the gradients as he proceeds up the line past the Hex River Valley, Montagu Road, Prince Albert Road, and so on to Beaufort West and Nel's Poort. On the east side of the Continent a journey by rail from Durban or Natal to Pieter-Maritzburg, Estcourt, Ladysmith, and thence by coach or cart over Van Reenen's Pass to Harrismith in the Free State, would teach the same lesson.

(2) Beginning on the west from the valley of the Cunene River, isolated hills and elevations will be found close to Cape Frio and at certain intervals along the coast, but, as a rule, the elevated plateau and main ranges lie far back behind the sandy tracts of the coast. Generally speaking they seem to be a continuation of the ranges of Mossamedes in Portuguese territory. They culminate in the centre of Damaraland about latitude 22 S., some of the peaks, such as Otyiherero and Onyali, reaching an elevation of about 7,000 feet, whilst many others are to be found between 4,000 and 5,000 feet¹. These mountains gradually slope down to the valley of the Orange River and lie across a rainless zone of country, no rivers of importance flowing from them. They lie far to the west of the Kalahari Desert and of British Bechuanaland, and on both sides are difficult to reach owing to the peculiar nature of the country, which is dry, parched and sandy.

South of the Orange River are the Kamiesbergen (5,430 feet), the western portion of that series of

¹ See Juta's Map of Africa South of the Zambesi.

mountain buttresses in South Africa which extends in a semicircular course round the whole continent, supporting, as it were, the vast plateaux of the interior. Next to the Kamiesbergen are the Kabiskow (4,514), Hantams, Bokkêveldt, Roggeveldt, Koms Berg, Nieuwveldt, Compassberg, a lofty peak of about 7,800 feet, standing about midway in Cape Colony between east and west. Thence the line is continued by the Boschberg, the Stormberg, Waschbank Peak, and the clearly defined range of the Quathlamba or Drakenberg Range, culminating about latitude 29° S. in Giants' Castle (9,657), Champagne Castle (10,357), and Mont aux Sources (10,000), and subsiding gradually towards the north as Van Reenen's Pass and the southern borders of the Transvaal are approached. This portion of the continent, especially Basutoland, may be aptly termed the Switzerland of South Africa. Northwards the line of mountains, running parallel with the coast, is continued in the Lebombo and the Longwe Ranges as far as the valley of the Limpopo. Thence a series of highlands stretches along at the back of the Portuguese littoral, some mountain peaks such as Wedza (5,400) and Sadza (4,500) at the sources of the Sabi River reaching a considerable elevation. In Mashonaland about latitude 18° S. a place called Selous' Camp is 4,050 feet. The country sinks towards the valley of the Zambesi, but the same lofty features are preserved along the east of Africa, and it is more or less the same mountain system which reaches its greatest height at Kilimanjaro, under the Equator, and is connected ultimately with the Abyssinian ranges.

(3) On considering the general features and direction of this main system it must be remembered, however, that to the westward there are some smaller ranges which run nearly at right angles to it, such as the Witwaters-

rand (white water slope), famed for its gold mines, the Magaliesberg or Cashan Mountains, and the Waterberg, all in the Transvaal and sending from their slopes tributary waters to the Crocodile or Limpopo River. In Matabililand the Matoppo Mountains, on the northern slopes of which is Buluwayo, Lobengula's kraal or capital, exhibit somewhat similar features, and are in themselves a very distinct series, with a north-west and south-east slope. They are the backbone, as it were, of Matabililand, and gradually merge into the main system in Mashonaland, at the extreme north-east corner of Africa south of the Zambesi.

(4) Returning to the extreme south-west of Africa and to the borders of the Cape Colony, it will be seen that in addition to the main range of the interior there is a second or subsidiary system running round the country nearer the coast-line, at distances varying between 50 and 150 miles. These are the Cedar Berg, the Olifants River Mountains, and the great Winterhoek (6,840). Thence they are continued along the Hex River Mountains, the Keerom Berg, the Zwartebergen, the Baviaans Kloof Mountains, the Cockscomb, the Zuurberg. Towards the Great Fish River Rand this range subsides as it approaches the coast. In the direction of the Transkei Pondoland and Natal, Zululand and Swazieland, the subsidiary ranges or buttresses are not so well defined, and are frequently denuded and isolated masses separated from one another by deep kloofs. Along the western borders of Pondoland, Mount Frere, Mount Ayliff, Ingeli Mount, and, in the north of Griqualand East, Mount Currie and the Zwartberg, indicate rather more clearly the highlands which run parallel with the loftier eminences of the Drakensberg.

(5) The principal passes or poorts, as they are sometimes called, from the lower to the higher plateaux are

Nel's Poort in the west, leading past the Nieuwveld Mountain to Victoria West, through which the main railway is led, Daggaboers' Nek and Naauw Poort on the Somerset East and Cradock Lines, Tylden's Pass on the East London Line near the Molteno coal fields. Further north there is the Barkly Pass leading from Griqualand East and Tembuland to the division of Barkly East; the New Pass, Ongeluk's Nek, Bushman's Nek, between Griqualand East and Basutoland; Van Reenen's Pass, de Beer's Pass, Schiet Nek, and Lang Nek along the Natal western boundary. The Natalians are now contemplating the extension of their railway through Van Reenen's Pass, a measure which will link them with the Orange Free State. Lang Nek is the Pass into the Transvaal from Natal, well known as the scene of a crowning disaster to British arms at the hands of the Boers, who, concealing themselves behind the huge boulders and rocks on either side of the narrow road, poured a murderous volley into the British troops, as they defiled upwards in long and scattered line.

(6) Thirdly, and for the sake of clearness, a coast range may be distinguished, occasionally coming close to the shore. Such are the mountains around Franschhoek and Somerset West, Houwhoek and the neighbourhood of Sir Lowry's Pass; the Langebergen and Kannaland Mountains, through which the Tradouw Pass takes the traveller from the coast to the first level; also, the well-wooded and beautiful Outeniqua Mountain and Langkloof Mountains, with the noble outline of Formosa Peak. In connexion with these, various isolated hills and eminences may be mentioned, which cannot be brought under any general line or classified under any particular range. Such are the three well-marked hills off Cape Frio in Damaraland, averaging about 700 feet; Sugar Loaf Hill further south; Hanoas Mount near Walvisch

Bay ; the Twin Mountains near Cape Voltas at the mouth of the Orange River ; Table Mountain (3,562), composing the Cape Peninsula ; Potberg Mountain, forming Cape Infanta on the south coast to the west of St. Sebastian Bay ; Mount Sullivan and Mount Thesiger on either side of the St. John's River in Pondoland, and others.

(7) Professor Drummond, in his work on 'Tropical Africa,' has briefly indicated the general features of South African geography north of the Zambesi. 'The physical features of the great continent are easily grasped. From the coast a low scorched plain, reeking with malaria, extends inland in unbroken monotony for 200 or 300 miles. This is succeeded by mountains slowly rising into plateaux some 2,000 or 3,000 feet higher, and these, at some hundreds of miles' distance, form the pedestal for a second plateau as high again. This last plateau, 4,000 or 5,000 feet high, may be said to occupy the whole of Central Africa. These plateaux are but mountains or plains covered for the most part with forest. The Zambesi drains an area of more than half a million of square miles, and, like the Nile and other African rivers, its reaches are broken by cascades and cataracts marking the margin of the several tablelands. Africa rises from its three environing oceans in three great tiers ; first a coast-line low and deadly ; further in a plateau the height of the Grampians ; further still, the higher plateaux, extending for thousands of miles, with mountains and valleys. Cover the coast belt with rank, yellow, grass ; dot here and there a palm, clothe the next plateau with endless forest, with low trees and scanty leaves offering no shade. As one approaches the Equator, Central Africa becomes cooler because the continent is more elevated in the interior and there is more aqueous vapour and cloud than in the southern lowlands. The climate of the Equatorial zone is here, as elsewhere,

superior to that on the borders; at night it is cold, two blankets being needed. The shade thermometer rarely reaches ninety-five degrees.' What is true of the gradual rise of land in Tropical Africa is true also in Subtropical Africa. It must be remembered, however, that the coast-lines of Natal and the Cape Colony are free from that deadly malaria experienced further north, and that the forests of the Knysna and Kaffraria on the south and south-east are genuine woodlands with tall umbrageous trees, useful for timber, some of them evergreen and some deciduous, giving beauty to the landscape and shade to the traveller. Further, it may be remarked that Mr. Stanley's descriptions of the Aruwihimi forest must qualify Professor Drummond's estimate of forest scenery in the interior. Generally speaking, the student of South African geography must recollect that there are many essential and natural differences between Tropical and Subtropical Africa, in large features as well as in smaller details.

(8) *Deserts and Plains.* A great portion of the interior of South Africa is noted for its vast plains and karroos (a Hottentot word meaning dry places). Beginning from the west there is the Great Kalahari Desert lying to the east of Damaraland and Namaqualand, which may be termed the Sahara of South-west Africa. Comparatively little is known of this region, where scattered clans of Hottentots and Bushmen lead a wandering life, cut off by immense spaces from the rest of the world and leading a precarious existence. Here and there are shallow salt-pans or vleis, into which, after occasional storms, a certain amount of water finds its way. A central point in this region, towards which hunters and travellers bend their steps, is Lake Ngami and Moremi's country in latitude $20^{\circ}40'$ S. and longitude 25° E., first reached by Dr. Livingstone and Mr. Oswell in 1846, and from the west coast by

Andersson in 1853 and Baines in 1863. This Lake varies in size according to the rainfall, but according to the general opinion of those who have visited it the waters are gradually diminishing. The Botletle is marked on the maps as a river which flows into the Lake from the east, but in Baines' 'Explorations in South-west Africa' it is stated that, within a short distance of the Lake, during the months of April and May the Botletle was flowing south-east, that is in an opposite direction. Only a few miles of river were flowing westward. North of Lake Ngami is the Okavango River, along which a party of emigrant Boers from the Transvaal found their way (1874-80), suffering extreme hardships.

(9) On the south of Lake Ngami is Andersson's Vlei, approaching in size to Lake Ngami. Far to the westward of Kolobeng in British Bechuanaland sandy tracts extend for leagues along the burning Tropic of Capricorn. In many places there is no water, and were it not for the kengwe or water-melon, which provides food as well as drink, the country would be absolutely impassable. Occasionally, high sand-dunes are met with, densely covered with bush and affording cover to large quantities of small game. The favourite tree of the desert is the acacia or mimosa, and here and there the baobab trees are conspicuous objects in the landscape. At a place called Sibbiton's Drift or Ford, on the Okavango River, in the country of chief Moremi, there is a spot well known because of a large baobab tree with a hollow trunk, which is made use of by traders and hunters as a post office, and is known by the name of the Letter Tree. Such are the primitive landmarks of this desolate wilderness.

(10) The vegetation of the deserts and karroos is of a peculiar nature. The plants, having so little moisture from the skies, send down roots and tubers far beneath

the surface, thus creating for their use miniature reservoirs, upon which they draw for sustenance during protracted droughts. In the spring time, when the veldt is refreshed with the first showers, the surface of the karroos is covered with a short-lived but marvellous growth of beautiful flowers. A fountain in this country is a precious treasure, and is jealously guarded as a secret by Bushmen and Hottentots. Occasionally, the thirsty traveller reaching one of these fountains digs round it too deeply in his eager haste, and, breaking through the retaining wall of clay, sees the water disappear before his eyes, a more cheating vision than a mirage, a more cruel torture than that of Tantalus. The rivers also as they are followed into the wilds of the desert become smaller and smaller by reason of the great surface evaporation that goes on, and sink mysteriously into the bowels of the earth. By digging deep along the channel, however, the traveller may find its sluggish current and rescue it from its subterraneous cavities. There is probably a greater amount of water stored deep below these desert spaces than is popularly imagined, and Sir Charles Warren, during his Bechuanaland expedition, surprised the Boers by the ease with which he supplied his large forces with water. Geologists and travellers, drawing their conclusions from the lacustrine appearance of many of the karroos and plains of South-west Africa, have asserted that at some remote age there were vast sheets of water here lying in a series of inland lakes, but that, owing to some violent convulsions of nature, they burst their barriers and found their way to the ocean.

(11) South of the Kalahari Desert are karroos and plains stretching right down to the corner of South-west Africa. It was in this region that the Abbé de la Caille was engaged in the arduous undertaking of measuring a base line of 38,802 feet, in order to determine the

length of a degree on the meridian. Within the borders of the Cape Colony, the districts of Calvinia, Fraserburg, and Carnarvon, across which the Karriebergen stretch, do not very greatly differ from the plains north of the Orange River in Korannaland and Bechuanaland. In fact, it may be generally stated that nearly the whole of the western half of Africa south of the Zambesi, excepting of course the coast districts, exhibits more or less the well-known features of a desert country. Long rolling areas of veldt succeed one another with a tiring monotony; water is scarce; the sun beats powerfully down, and, from the fact that many of these karroos lie upon elevated plateaux, the cold as well as the heat is excessive. The earth has lost her green vestments and is clad in sober grey hues, sunbaked and parched. Evaporation takes place quickly, and at sundown the thermometer drops very suddenly. The traveller, if wise, will clothe himself as warmly as if in a colder latitude. Here, for centuries, has been the home of innumerable antelope, which are now replaced by the countless flocks of the farmers and graziers. To the inexperienced eye, the karroos present as a pasture-ground a barren and uninviting spectacle, but it is covered with a plant called the Sweet Karroo Bush, proved to be extremely nutritious to sheep. In this region animals seem to thrive without water, and the whole character and aspect of this region is exactly opposite to those of moist and green England. However, when water is brought upon the surface of the Great Karroo, the result is an amazing fertility, and many plans and projects have been brought forward and successfully executed to create artificial dams or reservoirs, wherever the configuration of the land permits, in order to store the occasional heavy downpour of the skies instead of allowing it to run to waste and create havoc and ruin in its

wake. It is also thought that a greater use might be made of artesian wells.

(12) The Great Karroo is the best known and most extensive plain within the borders of the Cape Colony, and it is the one from which the traveller going by rail from Capetown to the Diamond Mines and Kimberley may draw many general impressions of South African scenery. It lies along a vast range of country, forming the plateau lying between the Roggeveldt and Nieuwveldt Mountains on the north and the Zwartebbergen on the south¹. Roughly speaking, it extends over five degrees of latitude from latitude 20° E. to latitude 25° E., namely, from the Karroo Poort on the west to the spurs of the Boschberg and the valley of the Fish River on the east. The Western Railway traverses a large portion of it from Montagu Road to Nel's Poort. It is also called the Gough, a Hottentot word, said to be onomatopoeic and expressive of disgust². In the early days of colonisation the journey from the head of the Hex River valley across the Great Karroo to Graaf Reinet was calculated to take sixteen days³. Theal, a more recent African historian, calculates its length as about 350 miles and its average breadth 50⁴.

(13) In the Orange Free State there are very extensive plains along the south of the Vaal River, and indeed over its whole surface. Not until the valley of the Vaal is passed and the south-western borders of the South African Republic are reached does the mountain system begin. From this point, however, eastwards, and

¹ See Juta's Map of South Africa, from the Cape to the Zambesi.

² 'Transactions of the South African Philosophical Society,' 1878, vol. i. p. 58.

³ 'Barrow's Travels in South Africa,' 1806, vol. i. p. 27.

⁴ 'Compendium of South African History,' p. 11.

towards the interior, there are a succession of mountains stretching right up into Matabililand. The elevated plains of the Transvaal are known as the High Veldt or Hoogeveldt. In the Cape Colony the plains and karroos of the interior give place to the mountains about 24° E. longitude, the meridian of Richmond. A more accurate study of the mountains of the country will help to mark their limits. In Mashonaland, south of the Zambesi, Mr. Selous, a recent traveller, observes that a drought is an unknown thing.

(14) *Rainfall.* Generally speaking, the rainfall of Africa south of the Zambesi is intermittent and violent, coming rather in the shape of thunderstorms than in regular and refreshing showers. For the fields and pastures of the country there is, properly speaking, no rainy season punctual in its arrival and departure, as in the Madras Presidency, for instance, at the change of the monsoons. The farmer and agriculturist, especially in the karroos and plains of the provinces of the interior, never can be sure of grateful showers coming at a convenient time and enabling him to break up with the plough the adamantine surface of the veldt. For purposes of agriculture the severe thunderstorm is not very beneficial. Vast torrents of rain descend in a short space of time, and, falling upon a hard surface baked in the perpetual sunshine, flow off quickly in the deep river beds. The very appearance of the mountains in South Africa, which are often bare masses of rock with sharp outlines and deeply serrated edges, shows the extent to which the process of denudation has been carried. Nowhere are the faces of mountains more cleanly furrowed, seamed, and weather-beaten than in South Africa. Their sides, also, which are perpetually crumbling away and sinking into yawning chasms and steep precipices, are singularly destitute of timber and green pastures. There

are many exceptions, of course, on the south coast of the Cape Colony and in Kaffraria and in many tracts of country northwards, but, speaking generally, the South African mountain stands bared as it were to the very ribs in the eye of the scorching sun. Suddenly the thunder-clouds gather round his peaks, and a wonderful and sublime sight it is. Then comes the down-pour, accompanied very often with hailstones and vivid flashes of lightning, blinding the unfortunate traveller with almost continuous glare. The din amongst the boulders is terrific, and, after the violence of the storm is past, a strange silence follows and the echoes die away. But within a comparatively short time the deluge has been tremendous. The numerous little paths and sheep-tracks of the mountain-side have become the beds of rivulets, the sluiceway or hollow a running stream, and the burn a raging cataract. As the traveller stands awestruck by the side of a river which has suddenly been raised to a height of twenty or thirty feet above its normal level, and sees the countless tons of soil being carried away seaward in the discoloured water, he realises how powerful are the disintegrating forces of these sudden rains. It is argued by some that the sand and sediment of the interior plateaux of Southern Africa, which are swept off annually and never allowed to rest anywhere in fertile deltas at the mouths of the rivers, are drifted by the ocean current along the shores and find a lodgement more or less permanent on the great Agulhas banks. Geologists also attest to the denuding power of the rainfall when they assert that the surface of the country, even far below the coal-bearing strata, has been literally washed away in past ages, and that if any coal is to be found in South Africa, it will appear high up amongst the lofty plateaux and the mountains. As a matter of fact the only coal mines of Cape Colony are found at Cyphergat and

Molteno, high up in the Stormberg Mountains, thus giving colour to this theory.

(15) A comparative table of the rainfall in the Cape Colony will show a marked difference between the Eastern and Western Provinces. In the western districts and in the vicinity of the Cape Peninsula the rain falls in the winter months generally when the north-west wind blows. In the Eastern Province these conditions are reversed. Here it generally comes in the summer when the south-east wind prevails. It has been pointed out, however, that the rainfall in the Eastern Province varies greatly within a short distance. For instance, in the Katberg and Great Winterhoek Range in the Eastern Province there are three variations. On the top of the Katberg Pass (5,720) there is constant rain in summer from the south-east; to the northwards heavy thunderstorms from the north-west, sweeping the Winterberg and Amatolas and traversing the country towards Natal, whilst along the coast there is the usual periodic rain of the Eastern Province¹. But the complete difference, as a rule, between the eastern and western rainfall is shown at Victoria West in the Midland Province, where the climatic conditions of the east assert themselves. Close observation has proved that when it is raining at Capetown and the vicinity it seldom or never rains here. By taking a railway journey towards the karroo from Capetown it is therefore possible to escape the wet weather of the west. The rainfall of Table Mountain is a study in itself. In winter this mountain (3,562), rising up as high as Snowdon, receives the full brunt of the north-westerly gales and rains, but by far the greatest amount of moisture is precipitated on the lee side of the mountain. The registered rainfall on the

¹ 'Transactions of the South African Philosophical Society,' 1877-8.

The following is Mr. Gamble's Table of Rainfall in South Africa:—

	Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.	Winter.	
WESTERN.					
Royal Observatory, Cape Town .	5	2	6	11	Twenty-four inches.
Sea Point	5	2	5	9	Twenty-one "
Bishop's Court	12	6	11	22	Fifty-one "
Stellenbosch	6	1	7	9	Twenty-three "
Worcester	3	1	3	6	Thirteen "
Clanwilliam	1	1	3	5	Ten "
Concordia, Namaqualand . .	1	2	2	5	Ten "
Nel's Poort	2	3	3	1	Nine "
Graaf Reinet	4	6	4	2	Sixteen "
Somerset East	5	6	6	2	Nineteen "
Uitenhage	6	3	4	3	Sixteen "
Port Elizabeth	7	5	6	6	Twenty-four "
Graham's Town	8	8	7	4	Twenty-seven "
Aliwal North	5	12	6	1	Twenty-four "
King William's Town . . .	7	11	7	3	Twenty-eight "
Pieter-Maritzburg	10	13	6	1	Thirty "
Merebank, near Port Natal .	12	13	14	6	Forty-five "
MIDLAND.					
EASTERN.					
NATAL.					

exposed side is, taking the average of five years¹, nearly three times as great as it is on the sheltered side of the Peninsula formed by the mountain. It is generally supposed that moisture-laden winds deposit rain on that side of the mountain which they strike first, but the case of Table Mountain must be explained by the theory that the mountain, although high, is still not high enough to intercept the flying clouds. Given an altitude of 10,000, or even 7,000 feet, and the rainfall register might be different. In the Eastern Province there are many precipitous mountains facing the south-east, the rainy quarter, which, from their green appearance and thickly wooded slopes on the weather side and their comparatively dry and parched appearance beyond and towards the interior, would seem to have thoroughly drained the clouds of their moisture. Parts of the Katberg and Winterberg in this Province are striking examples of this tendency.

(16) With regard to the amount of the annual rainfall throughout the Colony, it would appear to vary very greatly from year to year. The south, south-east and north-east Provinces have most, the midland and western and north-west Provinces the least. In West Namaqualand and West Damaraland there is, as we have seen, a rainless zone, Port Nolloth showing an average of about two to three inches². The rainfall at King Williamstown in the Eastern Province, taken at the Grey Hospital by Dr. Egan, from 1868 to 1884, shows an average of twenty-seven inches yearly, 'of which the normal distribution throughout the year is as follows:—rather more than one-third of the whole quantity falls in the summer months, from January to March, and rather less than that quantity during the

¹ 'Statistical Register,' 1884-1888.

² 'Statistical Register,' p. 36.

spring months, October to December. About one-sixth of the whole falls in the autumn, from April to June, and rather less than one-sixth in the winter from July to September. The wettest observed year was 1876, when thirty-seven inches fell; the driest was 1878, when the total fall did not amount to fifteen inches. The heaviest fall on record was in May, 1872, when about nine and a quarter inches fell in three days, of which nearly eight inches fell during six hours only. There has been a succession of dry years since 1877. There is usually a drought in winter, and the rainy season is inaugurated by a heavy fall about the end of September or the beginning of October. In the Perie mountains, that is nearer the coast, the rainfall is heavier¹.

(17) It must be observed that droughts rarely extend over the eastern and western portion of the Colony at the same time. In the year 1877 there was a severe drought in the midlands, only four inches of rain falling at Nel's Poort, but the rains in the west were excessive at that time, no less than twenty-three inches being registered at Bishop's Court, under Table Mountain, in the month of May alone. A railway journey, therefore, of a few hours may convey the traveller from a desert region, unvisited by rain for months, to the south-west or south-east district where rain is descending in torrents.

(18) It has been sometimes asserted that the rainfall in South Africa generally is decreasing, and upon this point Sir Charles Warren has offered a few remarks which may give some colour to the assertion: 'I have noticed frequently in South Africa that where rain falls on a piece of ground early in the season, succeeding showers will fall on the same piece of ground while adjoining farms remain comparatively dry: and it is

¹ 'Transactions of the South African Philosophical Society,' vol. iii. part 1, 1884.

frequently noticed that where a large tract becomes wet, heavy rains continue to fall during the season. It seems probable that the alleged decrease of rainfall may be due to a gradual change of the grasses of the veldt, and to the introduction of sheep and to the veldt fires. In former days there were long grasses which were not suited to sheep, the sun scarcely ever reached the soil, and evaporation was, therefore, very gradual; consequently the soil remained damp, and there were many vleis and pans of water. Since the introduction of sheep the sun has been able to beat fiercely upon the soil, moisture is rapidly exhausted, and in addition to this the numerous cattle tracks tend to carry off the rainfall much more rapidly to the sluits and rivers, and the river-beds have in some cases sunk many feet during the last fifty years. The result is that where there used to be morasses and swamps there are now dry water-courses, and this is very remarkable in many parts of the Cape Colony and Basutoland¹. The cattle tracks and sheep paths in well-stocked farms alluded to by Sir Charles Warren are very visible to the eye, especially along the slopes and hills of the farms. The grass and veldt seem literally to be trampled out, and as the flocks have generally to be 'kraaled' or brought into the bush compounds at night from long distances, the trampling is naturally far greater than in ranches, where, with no fear of cattle-lifters, sheep-stealers and wild animals before their eyes, the farmers or ranchers can let their stock remain out all night.

¹ 'Proceedings Royal Colonial Institute,' vol. xvii. p. 9.



CHAPTER IV

Rivers. Lakes. Forests. Climate. Scenery.

.(1) *Rivers and Lakes.* The rivers of South Africa are a most peculiar feature in the landscape, and indicate by their very appearance the rainfall of the skies which, except in certain favoured localities along the coast regions, is brief, violent and spasmodic. In vain will the eye search for broad full reaches fringed, as in England, with tall leafy trees and edged with green pastures. On the contrary, it will rest upon a deep water-worn channel flanked by precipitous cliffs, with a rocky bed out of all proportion to the sluggish water that trickles down from pool to pool. The stunted willow and acacia grow on either side and, except in times of floods and freshets, serve almost entirely to conceal it from view. There are no fresh-water fish, as the trout or salmon, to enliven its pools; there is only the 'harder,' a species of mullet which comes up from the sea, and a few others of no interest to the fisherman. It may be mentioned, however, that efforts have been made to introduce trout into the streams of the Eastern Province, where the conditions are favourable to their growth. It has already been pointed out how useless the mouths of the South African rivers have been to the navigator, the shifting and dangerous bars of sand always being found across their entrances; nor are their upper courses much more useful to the agriculturist, unless a water-furrow can be led along an incline from some considerable elevation, to cultivate patches, or 'Lands' as they are called. The

water of a South African river is often confined within such deep banks that it cannot be easily led out for purposes of irrigation. It can only be utilised by means of pump-engines and pipes. The low level of the beds, also, makes the fords or drifts across them very difficult and dangerous for Cape-carts and ox-waggons, as travellers know to their cost, the deep loamy banks presenting a most formidable obstacle. The absence of good navigable rivers in a country means the absence of cheap and easy communication. Nor can the water-power of the country, owing to the uncertain and torrential character of the rainfall, be utilised for mills or for driving machinery. In this respect no country differs more from Canada than South Africa.

(2) Beginning from the west and following the country round from the Cunene to the Zambesi, there may be said to be, generally speaking, four clearly marked river systems in Africa south of the Zambesi. First, there is the Orange River draining the country from east to west, with its sources amongst the Drakenberg Mountains that run parallel with the shores of the Indian Ocean. The river, it will be seen, traverses almost the whole breadth of the continent. Secondly, there are the rivers in the south, such as the Gamtoos and Gauritz, which carry off the sudden thunderstorms and periodical rains of the Great Karroo. Thirdly, there are the rivers of Kaffirland and Zululand, north of the Great Fish River as far as Delagoa Bay, all of which have a similar character, with sources high up in the mountains, and a short but impetuous course from a high elevation to the Indian Ocean. Fourthly, there is the great system of the Limpopo, Sabi, and Zambesi Rivers, which drains a vast area of country north of the Transvaal and includes the country of the Matabili, Mashonaland, Khomas country, and the regions abutting

on the great Kalihari Desert. The drainage and slope of the continent in these immense regions is from west to east, exactly contrary to what it is further south along the valley of the Orange River. The tributary streams of the Great Zambesi may be said to rise almost within sight of the South Atlantic Ocean, yet the river finds its way into the Indian Ocean; the sources of the Orange River are close to the Indian Ocean, yet they turn westwards and flow into the Atlantic.

(3) The Gariep, Groote (Great) or Orange River rises in the great watershed of the Eastern Mountains, and is calculated to drain a surface of no less than 300,000 to 400,000 square miles. Although this river can boast occasionally of long stretches of smooth water, it resembles, generally speaking, a torrent rather than a river. The country along which this river finds its way for 1,000 miles varies very greatly. The principal head fountains are in the Mont aux Sources (10,000 ft.) and Champagne Castle (10,357 ft.), the mountains that serve as a boundary line between Basutoland and Natal. Thence it flows between the Maluti or Double Mountains on one side and the Quathlamba or Drakenberg on the other, in a south-westerly direction. After leaving the territory of Basutoland it serves as a dividing line westward between the Cape Colony and the Orange Free State. It is joined about half-way across this interval by the Caledon River, flowing from the north and drawing its waters from the high ground to the north-west of the Maluti, right up to the northern spurs of the Mont aux Sources. This tributary is about 220 miles in length and is called the Mogakare by the Basutos, and, where it unites with the Orange River, the combined waters have a width of 350 yards. After its junction with the Caledon, the Orange River receives from the south the waters of the Oorlogspont, the Walts

and the Zekoe Rivers, which are insignificant tributaries, excepting after thunderstorms have taken place in the Colesberg district, when they are turbid and swollen torrents. From Hopetown, at the south-west corner of the Orange Free State, to longitude 22° E., the Orange River serves as the southern boundary of Griqualand West. About half way it is joined by the well-known Vaal River, which, as far as length goes, exceeds the Orange River. It can be traced far to the eastward to the highlands beyond Standerton in the south-east corner of the Transvaal. It is replenished also with waters that flow from the high ground around Newcastle at the north-west corner of Natal, and also from waters coming from the northern ridges of Mont aux Sources, truly called the Mountain of Sources, inasmuch as the Vaal, the Caledon, and the Orange River itself all draw upon its slopes, and, after flowing in divergent valleys for hundreds of miles, meet again to roll in one deep river valley to the South Atlantic.

(4) After passing Griqualand West, the Orange River traverses a very different country. The first part of its course has been amongst wild and rocky mountains, which contribute countless streams and rivulets to its volume. Along the valleys of the Maluti and Quathlamba mountains the scenery has been grand and imposing, but westward of the 24th meridian the high table-lands and elevated plateaux are exchanged for a dreary waste and a thirsty soil. North of the districts of Carnarvon, Calvinia, and Namaqualand it winds along a little known and little frequented channel. The plateaux of Namaqualand slope towards it on either side, but bring no tributary waters. On the contrary, the hot air of the desert blowing across and down it diminishes its volume. A little to the east of longitude 20° E. there are some great falls called the Great Falls of Aughrabies, where

it takes a downward leap, and then, after flowing past Pella, westwards, between valleys wooded with thickets of willow and bastard ebony, cameldoorns, and other large acacias, bursts through steep and precipitous mountains, called the Gariepine Walls, into the sea. Although the river is of little use to the navigator, and is seldom utilised by the farmer, still it has rolled down one priceless treasure in its waters, viz. the river diamonds of the Vaal River, its tributary, which have led to the discovery of the Diamond Mines, more profitable than any gold dust yet rolled down in 'Afrie's sunny fountains.' The Orange River is said¹ to have been the river flowing past Camissa and the Vigiti Magna of old travellers, receiving its present name in 1770. It is the one great river of Africa south of the Zambesi, but is a disappointing river upon the whole.

(5) Between the Orange River and the Cape of Good Hope there are (1) The *Olifants River*, rising in the Olifants River Mountains, and joined in its course by the Doorn and Kromme Rivers, bringing the waters of the Cedar Berg, Gaaap, Hantam, and Lange Bergen Mountains. (2) The *Great Berg River*, which rises in Fransch Hoek. Its valley is clearly marked in its upper course at the foot of the Drakenstein Mountains, but to the west of the Great Winterhook it turns in a north-west direction and enters St. Helena Bay. Here it passes through a rich country, and is navigable for a few miles. The last hippopotamus seen in the Cape Colony was killed in the Berg River. On the South coast there is also the *Breede River*, which, with its low banks and full channel, navigable for small craft of 150 tons near its mouth, is a singular exception amongst South African rivers. It rises in the Warm Bokkeveld, and runs through some noble mountain scenery near Ceres. It

¹ See Map in Dapper's 'Africa,' 1668.

receives in its channel the waters of the romantic Hex River Valley, and leaves the mountain gorges for the more level and fertile valleys of Robertson and Swellendam. Further eastward is the *Gauritz River*, formed by the united waters of the Gamka or Lion River, the Dwika, Buffels, Touws, and Olifants River East. The Gauritz carries off the overflow of the plains, and, taking a southerly course, forces its way through the Zwartbergen mountains, through some magnificent gorges and rocks, which drew forth the wonder and admiration of Lichtenstein, the great African traveller.

(6) The *Knysna* is a short river flowing from the neighbouring Outeniqua mountains. It forms the wide lagoon known as the Knysna Harbour, and is one of the very few rivers in South Africa that enters the sea through a 'poort' or gate in a rocky part of the coast. The *Gamtoos River* somewhat resembles the Gauritz River, and drains a similar tract of country lying in the eastern portion of the Great Karroo. Its sources are in the highlands to the south-west of the Sneeuwbergen, and it is known in its upper course as the Kareiga and as Groote or Great River. It is an uncertain river, liable to sudden freshets and floods. The Zwartkops River and the Sunday River both flow into Algoa Bay, the former draining the country in the direction of the Winterhoek and Cockscomb mountains, and used in its lower reaches for boating purposes by Port Elizabeth oarsmen, the latter flowing through the low scrubby country known as the Addo Bush from the Zuurberg mountains.

The Kowie River is a small river carrying the waters of Albany to Port Alfred. Great efforts have been made to render the mouth of this river available for large ships inside the bar, and a sum of half a million of money is said to have been spent on the project, but hitherto without great success. The Kowie is a picturesque

and well wooded river, especially near its mouth, and has been called the Dartmouth of South Africa. Its channel is navigable for boats for twelve to fourteen miles.

The *Great Fish River* is a turbid torrent of the typical kind met with in this part of South Africa. Its sources lie far up along the eastern slopes of the Sneeuwbergen mountains, near the head fountains of the Sunday River. It accumulates the waters of the Great Brak River on the north, the Tarka, Koonap, and Kat River on the east, and pours them into the Indian Ocean. The waters of this river seldom run deep in the winter season, but sometimes, after heavy thunderstorms, they will rise twenty-five or thirty feet within a few hours. This river has been unusually destructive to bridges in past times, the floods bringing down huge floating masses of logs and débris, and jamming them in huge islands against the piers and supports.

(7) Northwards, the character and aspect of the rivers somewhat change. The mountains are nearer the sea, the rainfall as a rule more continuous and regular, the country more thickly wooded and grassy. Perennial fountains are more numerous, and the streams of Kaffirland are therefore more constant, and flow through a more beautiful country; and it is in these waters that sportsmen have the best hopes of naturalising the trout. Their drainage generally is from the shaded sides of cool mountains, always retaining and distilling moisture, rather than from the sudden overflow of a thunderstorm. Here along these streams, famous for so many episodes of border warfare, is the ideal home of the wandering Kaffirs, living their pastoral life amongst herds of oxen and flocks of sheep; and here it may be observed the Kaffirs still hold possession of the country in their reserves and locations,—a true black man's country in every sense of the word.

The following are some of the chief rivers north of the Fish River to the Natal frontier. The Keiskamma, Chalumna, Buffalo, Gonubie, Great Kei River, Bashee, Umlata, Umzimkulu. Of these the best known are the Keiskamma, which rises in a beautiful country up the Keiskamma Hoek, on the western side of the Perie mountains, at an elevation of about 4000 feet; the *Buffalo*, which rises in the same mountains, and has a length of about seventy miles along the windings of its channel. The total area of the watershed draining into the Buffalo is from 450 to 500 square miles; the greatest length of this watershed from East London to Debe Nek being from seventy to eighty miles. It is said that, owing to the destruction of the Perie Bush, this fine river has gradually changed its character from that of a steadily-flowing stream to an intermittent torrent¹. That it is subject to periodical overflows is evident from the fact that marks of floods may be distinguished by débris washed up in places some thirty feet above the bed of the river.

(8) The *Great Kei River* forms a boundary between the Cape Colony and its native, or, as they are called, Transkei provinces. This river rises in the Stormberg mountains, and has two small tributaries, the *Tsomo* and the *Indwe*, on the north, and the *Kabousie* on the south, where in 1877-8 a drunken brawl between two parties of natives was the cause of the last Kaffir war.

The *Bashee River* forms the boundary between Transkei properly so called and *Tembuland*. It rises high up under the Matewane mountains to the east of Barkly Pass. Close by, on the western side, are the head fountains of the Kraai River, a tributary of the Orange River, which flows westward for more than 1000 miles. The ridges of the Quathlamba or Drakenberg, extending

¹ 'Transactions of the South African Philosophical Society,' vol. iii.

many degrees northward, are the dividing line between the east and west river systems.

The *Umtata*, rising in the same highlands, divides Tembuland from Pondoland, and in Pondoland itself the *Umzimvubu* or *St. John's River*, rising south of Bushman's Nek, traverses Griqualand East, and, flowing past Kokstad, enters Pondoland a little north of Mount Frere. Thence it flows through a thickly populated native territory, rushing into the sea through a poort at the small fort and station of St. John's.

(9) The principal rivers in Natal are the Umzimkulu, rising close to the sources of the Umzimvubu under Bushman's Nek, and finding its way to the coast at Port Shepstone; the Umkomansi, the Umlazi, the Umgeni at Durban; the Umloti, Tongaati, Umvoti and the Tugela, a river well known in the annals of the Zulu and Boer wars. The sources of this river are in the neighbourhood of Newcastle, close to the south-east borders of the Transvaal, and near the classic spots Langnek, Ingogo, and Majuba Hill, noted for the British reverses during the Boer war of 1880-1. Close by are the tributaries of the Vaal River, and here the dividing ridges between the river systems bend somewhat to the east. In its upper course the Tugela is known as the Buffalo River, and it accumulates here from the north the waters of the Slang (Snake) River and the Blood River. At Conference Hill, in the valley of the Blood River, and in the Transvaal province of Utrecht, the British plenipotentiaries signed the treaty of peace. Just below the junction of the Blood River with the Buffalo or Tugela is Rorke's Drift or Ford, the scene of that well-known stand made by Chard and Bromhead after the rout at Isandlwana. From the river itself the marked features of the hill or kopjie of Isandlwana (the little hand) can be seen clearly at a distance of about twelve to thirteen miles. At the mouth

of the Tugela the British forts were erected during the Zulu war, one on the Natal side called Fort Pearson, and the other on the Zululand side called Fort Tenedos. At this point the river curves round with a wide channel, and from the cliffs of Fort Pearson a wide prospect is obtained over the veldt and along the course of the river. In the distance the Indian Ocean can be seen glistening in the sunlight. It was across the drift or ford of the Lower Tugela that Pearson's column passed over into Zululand. Far in the distance are the heights of Etshowe, the former stronghold of a beleaguered garrison, from whence signal lights could be flashed in the sunlight to the Natal borders. The Tugela does not belie the usual character of South African rivers. In the winter months it is generally fordable, but when the summer rains descend it is a roaring cataract a hundred yards wide. It was the Tugela flood that kept back, so it was said, the invading hosts of Cetywayo in 1879 after the crowning disaster of Isandlwana. No river in any savage country is more replete with stirring memories, and, be it added, crowning disasters for ourselves than the Tugela. At present it serves as a frontier line along its southern course between Zululand and Natal, and along its northern course between the Transvaal and Natal.

(10) Northwards, towards St. Lucia Bay, there are the Emlalasi River, finding its way along the valleys to the north of Etshowe; the Umlatoosi, which with the Iyulu, drains the country round the mission station of St. Paul's; the Umvolosi, which, along its two branches the Black and the White Umvolosi, finds its way out to St. Lucia Bay. This river valley was famous during the Zulu war, for at the central kraal or capital of Cetywayo the stern battle of Ulundi was fought, rightly considered the most memorable stand-up fight between British and Kaffirs in South Africa.

From Kambula Hill, the scene also of another fierce conflict, the river Kosi flows, reaching the coast at Sordwana Point, and forming the boundary between Zululand and Amatongaland.

In Amatongaland itself the most important river is the Pongolo, which rises in the highlands east of Majuba Hill and the Newcastle Hills, uniting with the Maputa on the Portuguese boundary, and thence flowing northwards into Delagoa Bay. The Pongolo is famous in the Zulu war as being one of the causes that led to the commencement of hostilities, being a disputed boundary between the Zulus and the Transvaal Republic. The Kosi and the Umfusi are insignificant streams in Amatongaland, the former flowing into the ocean into a lagoon north of St. Lucia Lake, a wide-spreading, shallow and fever-haunted expanse close to the sea, and the other emptying into Delagoa Bay west of the Inyack Peninsula.

(11) North of Delagoa Bay the rivers flow as a general rule from west to east. The Limpopo, called also the Crocodile, Oori, and Bembe, has a most erratic and devious course. It rises in the highlands of the Transvaal amongst the spurs of the Magaliesberg or Cashan mountains, and drains first of all the slopes of the famous Witwatersvand (Whitewater slope) and the Gold Fields district. Thence its course is northwards to the Transvaal border, which it strikes near long. 27° E, where it is joined by the Marico River. From this point it serves as the northern boundary of the Transvaal to long. 32° E., the Portuguese frontier, where it turns sharply to the south, and empties into the Indian Ocean, almost about the same latitude as its original sources far to the westward. Its course is marked by the great bend to the north inclosing a large portion of the Transvaal territory. It drains an enormous area lying between the Motoppo ridges on the north and the Drakenberg and Magaliesberg on the south,

and receives numerous tributaries, the most important of which are the Marico from the south of the Transvaal, the Notwane from British Bechuanaland, the Shasha, Bubi, and Nuanetsi from Matabililand, and the Olifants River from the Transvaal, which rises in the same highlands near Pretoria, but takes a more direct course eastward, meeting it at right angles in Portuguese territory. The whole country lying between the Limpopo and the Zambesi is described by Mr. Selous, a well-known traveller, as well watered, the 'running streams being innumerable'.¹ It will be seen, therefore, that the sources of the Limpopo and its tributaries lie up amongst the gold-bearing ridges of the Transvaal.

(12) The Zambesi is the largest and most magnificent of South African rivers, and its first waters spring from Equatorial Africa. It furnishes one striking feature in African geography which, in a country where so much is vague and indefinite, may serve as a fixed landmark, viz. the Victoria Falls. The mouth of the river and the Shiré valley furnish the trader and the colonist with another distinct geographical sphere. *Zambesia* at present is nothing but a geographical expression for a vast river valley, inhabited by warlike tribes, and barely known by the travels of explorers and sportsmen, and noted here and there for ancient trading stations such as Zumbo and Tete on its lower courses.

The Victoria Falls, discovered by Livingstone in the first instance, have been the wonder and admiration of all those who have seen them. This is a description given by Baines, in July, 1862, who travelled thither from Walvisch Bay, on the west coast, the journey occupying him fourteen months, i. e. from May, 1861. The visitor should approach these Falls from the south to realise

¹ Lecture before South African Philosophical Society, by F. C. Selous, January, 1890.

their full grandeur and sublimity. Toiling for many weeks over the desert highland north of the Ngami and Botletle River, where water is scarce, and the country arid, the traveller plunges suddenly down into an 'illimitable valley, where the brown and arid, stony ridges of the foreground pass through all imaginable shades of sombre green and greyish purple to the ethereal blue of the far-off horizon, and where from every hollow gushes some bubbling stream to send its waters to the great Zambesi¹.' The first sounds of this wonderful fall are thus described by the same writer: 'Let the traveller halt by night upon a distant slope, and, stretched beneath some gigantic baobab, watch the red glare of his fire, thrown high into the dim recesses of the foliage, and listen till in the stillness of the night there steals upon his ear a low murmuring like the sighing of ocean before an impending storm, rising and swelling gradually into the deep-toned monotonous roar of a continuous surf.' The first glimpse of it was soon after sunrise, when, 'seeking a little opening in the tree, we saw the water of the broad Zambesi glancing like a mirror beyond a long perspective of hill and valley, while from below it clouds of spray and mist nearly a mile in extent rose out of the chasm into which the water fell. The central five or six of these clouds or columns were the largest, but in all we counted ten, rising more like the cloud of spray thrown up by a cannon ball than in a strictly columnar form. A light easterly wind just swayed their soft vapoury tops; the sun, still low, shed its softened light over the sides exposed to it. The warm grey hills beyond faded gradually into the distance, and the deep valley before us . . . presented to the eye, long wearied of sere and yellow mopanie leaves, dry rocks, burnt grass, and desolated country, the most lovely and refreshing coup d'œil

¹ Baines, 'South-West Africa,' p. 482.

the soul of the artist could imagine.' After sweeping in a broad flood, half a mile across, past countless islands and rocks, the Zambesi Falls, unlike the Horseshoe Falls of Niagara, descend in a straight line, and afterwards flow off in a deeply cut, V-shaped channel. Dr. Livingstone estimated the height of the Falls to be 350 feet, and Baines calculated that the spray as he saw it rose 1144 or 1194 feet from the bottom of the chasm. This was when the waters were at their lowest; but when the volume of water rises to its full height in the summer, and six feet above its winter level, the effect must be grander still. Other travellers who have visited the Falls are Eduard Mohr, C. Baldwin, Dr. Holub, Major Serpa Pinto, F. C. Selous the well-known hunter, the late Hon. Guy Dawnay, and Messrs. Garland and Bond, Frank Oates, and Dr. Bradshaw. Mr. Frank Oates visited it on New Year's Day, 1875, when the river was in full flood.

(13) From the Victoria Falls the Zambesi flows first eastwards and then north-eastwards, and finally south-east, describing a somewhat similar curve to the Limpopo on the south, only on a larger scale, and enfolding a greater amount of territory. It receives in its ample stream the waters of Matabililand and Mashonaland, a country which is, according to Mr. Selous, one of the finest tracts in Africa. This part of Africa is very different, it must be remembered, from the western portion, where the water is extremely scarce and rivers lose themselves amongst the trackless sands. The best known northern tributary of the Zambesi is the Shiré, along which the traveller can reach the Lakes and Equatorial Africa. Here at the Shiré two spheres of territory seem to part, the one connected with the old-established southern states and territories, and the other with Nyassaland and the Lakes, where Britons and Germans meet in friendly rivalry.

(14) *Lakes.* There are no Lakes in Africa south of the Zambesi deserving of the name. There is Lake Ngami certainly, and Andersson's Vlei, lying in the Kalahari Desert, and only accessible after infinite toil. But they connect with no river, are part of no regular Lake system, and are practically useless for the purposes of the colonist. How different the broad waters of the Canadian Lakes! how different indeed the Lakes of Equatorial Africa, through which a waterway may be found traversing most of the distance from the mouths of the Zambesi to the sources of the Nile! In Africa south of the Zambesi, especially in the great plains and karroos, it is just possible that ages ago vast sheets of water may have been spread across the country, as geologists assert, judging from the mute evidence of the rocks; but the remnant of them now is very pitiful. The mirage of the desert alone recalls these phantom spaces of water when the traveller sees suspended in the air the tantalising sight of a fairy and unsubstantial creation.

In some places there are natural hollows in the ground which, in rainy weather, are filled with water and are called lakes. But they quickly dry up and leave an incrustation of salt upon the surface, and are hence called salt-pans. One of the largest, called the Commissioner's Salt Pan, lying in the desert south of the Orange River, has a circuit of eighteen or twenty miles. On the south coast, in the Knysna district, there are places called by way of courtesy lakes, but the geographical expression is misapplied here, the so-called lakes being four Vleis, called Groen or Green Vlei, a sheet of fresh water about three miles long and a mile broad, with no visible outlet to the sea, and diminishing in times of drought to smaller proportions; Zwart or Black Vlei, a reservoir of some mountain streams; Rond Vlei, about two miles in circumference, and with very brackish water; Lang

Vlei, which, when full, discharges its waters into the sea through a channel. This Vlei is about seven miles long and one mile wide, and the water contained in it is more or less salt according to the season.

(15) *Forests and Forestry.* In the early days of the Cape the Dutch officials introduced many trees and plants in order to supplement the somewhat scanty indigenous growth of the Cape Peninsula and the adjoining districts. They experimented both with Indian and European woods, and the kinds found to be best suited to the climate were the oak, *Quercus pedunculata*, and two kinds of pines, the *Pinus pinea* and *Pinus pinaster*. These were sent out, growing in boxes, from Europe in the days of the first Governor, Jan van Riebeeck¹. In 1687, Simon van der Stel had 50,000 young oaks in his nurseries, and 5,000 were bearing acorns in the Stellerbosch and Cape districts². Every farmer also was ordered to plant at least 100. The results of this care and foresight are seen in the avenues of oak in and around Capetown and Stellenbosch, and also in the fir groves along the sides and slopes of Table Mountain and elsewhere. Simon van der Stel made several efforts to naturalise the European olive in a country where there already existed an indigenous species, both on his own farm at Constantia and also in the Company's garden in Table Valley and at Rustenberg, but without success. The orange tree also was introduced at an early date, as well as many kinds of East Indian and European fruits—such as the loquat, naartje, peaches, apples, and many other sorts. Upon the whole there was a greater public spirit shown in experimenting upon and acclimatising trees and plants in the early days of the settlement than subsequently. Not only were the

¹ Theal's 'History of South Africa,' p. 82.

² Ibid. p. 328.

nurseries and botanical gardens of the Dutch East India Company a new and wonderful sight for visitors at Table Bay, but in a zoological garden belonging to the Governors of the settlement, they saw before them specimens of the wonderful fauna of the country. It would be well indeed if this old idea were revived, and if a zoological garden, devoted simply to African specimens, were again to be seen in Table Valley.

(16) Within very recent times, however, there has been a great and increasing interest shown in planting trees and afforesting certain suitable tracts of country. Efforts have been made to cultivate the walnut tree both in the Congo Valley, near Oudtshoorn, and also in the Amatola forests. The Australian eucalypti, especially the varieties known as the *robusta*, *marginata* and *globulus*, have been introduced with great success in the neighbourhood of Worcester and Beaufort West, and elsewhere. In marshy districts it thrives very well and converts an unhealthy district into a healthy one. On the Cape flats, where the soil is light and sandy, the wattle or Australian acacia grows well and provides a bark suitable for tanning purposes. The camphor wood, also (*Laurus camphorus*), has been naturalised in the Cape Peninsula.

Contrasted with such a country as Canada, where lumbering is the main industry, and thousands of square miles of country are covered with magnificent timber and the beauty of the autumn tints is a world-wide wonder, South Africa is lamentably deficient in forest wealth and forest display. The little that existed in former days has been ruthlessly destroyed. Fire and waste have converted such tracts as the Stockenstrom and Katberg forests into charred and gloomy ruins. If a fire once takes a firm hold on an African forest, after a season of prolonged drought, it works terrible havoc,

burning for weeks together. Almost all the timber for building purposes at the Cape is imported from Sweden or Norway. In 1888-9 the value of imported unmanufactured wood was £59,225, the export only £388, and this to Natal¹.

(17) The Government, however, have determined to husband what forest wealth they still possess with the greatest care. By the Forest Act of 1888 measures were taken for the preservation of the Cape woodlands, and the whole undertaking was brought under the superintendence of an official called the Superintendent of Woods and Forests, connected with the Crown Lands Department. For general purposes the Colony is divided into three districts, the Western, the Knysna,—a district along the south coast,—and the Eastern. Each district is placed under the charge of a Conservator, who has under his orders rangers and foresters in the charge of sub-districts and woody areas. A sum of £20,000 was voted in 1890 for the support of the department. With regard to the Western district there is no indigenous forest worth naming. At Swellendam there is a small patch about a mile in extent, and although the northern borders were doubtless well clothed at one time with the acacia, on which the giraffe fed, and also with the thorn tree or *Acacia horrida*, the destructive habits of the natives have long since destroyed these. In the mountains of Clanwilliam are the remains of the mighty cedar forests. On the Cedarberg the cedar forests occupy the upper slopes above the range of winter snow². These are open and scattered, contrasting in this respect with the green forests and scrubs elsewhere in the Colony. There is one remarkable tree peculiar to the Western district, and especially to Table Mountain, and this is the *Leucoden-*

¹ 'Statistical Register,' 1888.

² 'Catalogue of Cape Exhibits,' 1886-7, p. 73.

dron argentea, the most beautiful indigenous tree in South Africa. The leaves are of a soft glossy texture and flash like silver in the clear sunlight. They are used largely as decorations, and their surface lends itself readily to be illuminated with miniature paintings. The lower shrubs of Table Mountain consist of Proteae or sugar bushes, and in the corners of the kloofs a few of the larger indigenous trees may be found.

(18) The best-known Forest country of all, unknown to and unused by the old Dutch colonists of the west, is the Knysna Forest, lying in the divisions of George, Knysna, and Humansdorp, on the southern coast between the ports of Capetown and Port Elizabeth. This is certainly the most attractive of all South African woodlands. In the warm, moist climate, watered by the summer rains of the East as well as by the winter rains of the West, facing a lukewarm sea, heated by the Agulhas current from the Indian Ocean, the forest vegetation of the Knysna reaches a semi-tropical luxuriance. The tall yellow woods (*Podocarpus*), the black iron woods (*Olea laurifolia*), and the valuable stinkwood or laurelwood (*Oroodaphne bullata*), tower above the tangled brushwood, and are often covered with masses of grey lichen, hanging like beards from their branches, or are clasped by long creeping parasites, such as the wild vine or monkey rope, in their age and appearance veritable monarchs of the forest. The area, however, of these woodlands is limited, only 150 square miles coming under Government control. In contrast with the tall forest is the dense undergrowth, called locally Fynbosch, through which the elephants and buffalos have from time immemorial made their paths. Under the term 'forest produce' all game is included; and under skilful management what a splendid national park or paradisus this tract might make, where some of the

nobler types of African game might be reintroduced, and their safe custody entrusted to rangers and conservators¹!

(19) Eastward of Knysna Forests and Port Elizabeth, lies a semi-desert tract of sand covered with euphorbia brushwood, known as the Addo Bush. Further east are the Alexandria Forests, which have trees unknown in the Knysna, such as the Cape teak. The forests of Bathurst, known as the Kowie Bush, and celebrated in Kaffir warfare, lie next to the Alexandria woodlands. To the north-east are the forests of East London, in which a very useful boxwood grows, unknown elsewhere. These constitute the Eastern Coast Forests, and for the most part they are described as being of a scrubby character owing to reckless waste. In these forests all felling is forbidden.

The Eastern Mountain Forests differ widely from those on the coast. They are found on the Perie and Amatola mountains and contain very fine timber. The variety of woods is greater in the eastern than in the Knysna districts. The Perie is the lower range rising from an elevation of about 1,500 feet to 3,500 feet above the sea level. The Amatolas rise from 2,500 to 6,300 feet. The Perie range is said to be the best wooded, and the forest there is estimated at fifty square miles. Altogether the total area of high timber districts in the Eastern mountains is said to be 152 square miles. This added to the 150 square miles of the Knysna gives a total of a little more

¹ In Canada the Government of the Dominion have set apart a large portion of the Rocky Mountains at Banff as a preserved area, where the many types of flora and fauna may be kept in their primæval abundance. Not only at the Knysna, but also in the vicinity of the Cedarberg Mountains, huge tracts might be set apart for the same purposes. The solitude that sportsmen make with improved rifles in South Africa is often deeply to be deplored.

than 300 square miles¹,—a very small fraction of the whole area of the Cape Colony, which is calculated at 217,895 square miles¹. With regard to other parts of Africa, south of the Zambesi, it may be said that on the western side and in the Kalahari desert, Bechuanaland, the Orange Free State, the Transvaal, there are no forests deserving the name. Natal itself is deficient in forest wealth, but in parts of Zululand there are tracts of thick bush. Of Mashonaland Mr. Selous reports that certain river valleys are heavily timbered.

(20) The Cape woods are very useful for the purposes of commerce. Stinkwood is equal to teak in strength, and is used for railway sleepers and waggons. Sneezewood is the most valuable tree of all, ranking with jarrah and greenheart, and is impervious to the tropical white ant or the marine borer. The yellowwood is a useful tree and noble to look at, its crown sometimes spreading over sixty feet. Occasionally it reaches a girth of thirty-four feet, and a height of ninety feet. The assegaiwood, of which the Kaffirs make the shafts for their well-known assegais, is extremely tough and strong. The boxwood is well adapted for ordinary engraving purposes. One of the most conspicuous trees in the depths of a South African forest is the wild chestnut (*Calodendron Capense*), which flowers about Christmas time, each branch being tipped with heavy pannicles of pink blossom. This is one of the few deciduous trees in the country. Altogether there is a great variety of useful woods in South Africa, chiefly noted for their tough and hard nature, which renders them particularly useful for certain purposes of commerce, such as engraving. In course of time these woods may, with due care, become a source of wealth.

(21) There is one small, but to the naturalist interest-

¹ 'Statistical Register,' 1888-9, p. 21.

ing, native industry which is carried on in the South African forests, and this is honey-hunting. The Hottentot aborigines of the country are marvellously quick-sighted and skilful in detecting the flight of the bees to their hives, either in the bole of some rotten tree or in a rocky cliff. In this pursuit they are sometimes assisted by the honey bird, which by its note gradually leads them from tree to tree till the nest is reached. This instinct is one of the most curious in the natural world, and has often been remarked upon by ornithologists. When the nest is rifled of its contents by the honey hunter, a portion of the honey-comb is sometimes left as a reward to the little guide. For the privilege of hunting, a small licence is paid by the inhabitants of the forest.

(22) Further, there is one purpose for which the indigenous woods of the country do not seem especially adapted, and this is boat- and ship-building. When, in 1886, three adventurous Scandinavian sailors, named Captain Olsen, Bernhard Olsen, and Nilsen, built, in the Free State, a boat of twenty feet in length and seven feet in beam, called her the 'Homeward Bound,' and launched her at Durban, to embark upon a long and perilous voyage to England round by the Cape, a voyage of many thousands of miles, the material they used throughout was imported American pitch pine. The dearth of good ship timber in South Africa must partly account for the complete degeneracy of the Dutch colonists at the Cape as a sea-faring people. With no good harbours at hand, with no navigable rivers, and no ship-timber or spars or masts, the change in their character and traditions as a maritime and fishing folk to a nomadic, pastoral, and continental people, might almost have been conjectured from the beginning. At the present time the up-country Boer has extremely vague ideas of the ocean and of all things connected with it.

(23) *Climate.* From what has been already stated with regard to the physical conditions of South Africa, it will be readily understood that there is a great variation of climate. As the traveller mounts from the coast to the interior plateaux, there will be, broadly speaking, three distinct climates. First, there will be a coast climate, which is, as a rule, moist and damp, although it must be remembered that in this respect there is a great difference between the coast of Namaqualand and Damaraland and the west, where rain seldom falls, and that of the eastern sea-board. Natal, for instance, is a far preferable climate to Port Nolloth. In the Cape Colony itself places vary within a comparatively short distance. Capetown, lying on a peninsula, has a more equable climate than portions of the coast lying east or north of Table Bay. The south-east wind, often a local wind, is called 'the Capetown doctor,' from the fact of its sweeping through the streets with force and persistency for days together. But, as may be imagined, the visits of this scavenger wind, raising clouds of red dust, are not very agreeable. Close by, at Ceres, at an elevation of 1,700 feet, near the Hex River mountains, there may be great calm and clear skies. Capetown differs also from Knysna Harbour and the adjoining littoral, where there are large tracts of forest close at hand, and, consequently, greater humidity. Capetown also differs from Port Elizabeth, where wind and rainfall vary. As already pointed out, the north-west wind comes to Capetown, across the South Atlantic, laden with moisture; it reaches Port Elizabeth as a continental wind. Further north, towards the Equator, the coast regions are malarious and unhealthy. All round the coast of Africa, when a certain latitude is reached, there is a malarious fringe of country, especially bad at shallow lagoons and along the mouths of flooded rivers.

(24) The second kind of climate in South Africa is semi-continental, and is found at its best on the eastern side, at an elevation of about 2000-3000 feet. Perhaps there is no climate in the world more delightful than this. The influences of a maritime climate may still be felt at their height as the south-east winds come from the ocean and strike the first buttresses of the continent, but there is an absence of the excessive humidity and consequent depression occasionally felt along the shore itself. Probably Algeria itself cannot boast of so many fine health resorts as the Cape Colony, especially at certain elevations. Army statistics show that the Cape and Natal are both very healthy for soldiers. Before the Suez Canal was opened the Cape was regarded as a sanatorium for broken-down Indian officers and officials.

(25) The third kind of climate is strictly continental, and is peculiar to the high table-lands of the interior and to the mountain districts. As these lands are seldom covered with thick vegetation, the radiation of the sun is very strong, and there is a very great difference between the day and night temperature, sometimes as much as forty or fifty degrees. This is trying to some constitutions, but, on the other hand, the air is so dry and bracing that the extremes of heat and cold are not felt as they would be in England. For all diseases of the lungs the climate of the inner plateaux of South Africa is without a rival. Curiously enough, it is a country where sunstrokes rarely occur and hydrophobia is unknown. For the farmer and agriculturist who has to depend upon a rainfall for ploughing and sowing, the continued dryness of the country is a serious drawback, but, if he can only make sure of the first processes, the harvest can always be ingathered without the slightest fear of interruption. With South African colonists, the climate and the weather are generally a foregone con-

clusion. To the European colonists the climate has proved very beneficial, the men being generally tall, strong, and healthy. The Dutch Boer of South Africa is very different from the Dutch type in Europe, being generally of larger build. Large families of children are the rule rather than the exception, and in a few generations the white population must increase greatly.

(26) Perhaps the most healthy and bracing climate in South Africa may be found in the Eastern Provinces of the Cape Colony. Dr. Symes Thompson has pointed out that Grahamstown, with an elevation of 1,800 feet, Graaf Reinet (2,403 feet), Queenstown (3,500 feet), Aliwal North (4,348 feet), Tarkastad (4,280 feet), Burghersdorp (4,650 feet), Bloemfontein (4,500 feet), are all favourable localities for consumptive patients. He remarks, also, that Capetown, distant 34° from the Equator, has a corresponding mean annual temperature, about 63° , with Naples, Nice, and the Riviera in from 41° to 43° north. He has also observed that in the Northern Hemisphere we are accustomed to regard an elevation of from 5,000 to 6,000 feet as necessary to secure immunity from consumption, but the suitable elevation in South Africa is found at 3,000 feet. 'There is,' he says, 'a great dryness of air and soil, remarkable purity and coolness of air, with an almost complete absence of floating matter, together with great intensity of light and solar influence; great stillness in winter and a large amount of ozone¹.' The climate of the Zambesi valley at the Victoria Falls is unhealthy during the summer, although the elevation is 2,580 feet above the sea. In the neighbourhood of Lake Ngami, at an altitude of 2,813 feet, the sickly season prevails from September to May. A peculiarity has been noticed in the climate on the Limpopo or Crocodile River, at an altitude of 2,880 feet,

¹ 'Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute,' vol. xx. p. 5.

where the road from Pretoria to Khama's country crosses the river. Whilst the sun is hot, viz. at 99° in the shade, cold blasts of wind, having a temperature of 70° , occur every four or five minutes. Upon the whole, however, it may be said that, with proper care, the climate of Africa in the Cape Colony, Natal, the Dutch Republics, and elsewhere, especially along the interior plateaux, is very healthy. The old settlers of 1820 have proved by their wonderful longevity in many cases that, in spite of exposure, hardships, and trials, the life of a South African, and especially a Cape frontiersman, is well adapted to Europeans. As the country further to the north is better known, and the aid of science comes in, malarious complaints may be lessened or avoided altogether.

(27) *Scenery.* The scenery of South Africa naturally admits of a fourfold and distinctive description, under the variations of ocean, veldt or plain, bosch or forest, berg or mountain. Of the coast and ocean scenery few perhaps take notice, but it is extremely grand. One of the most magnificent sights in the world is a storm off the Cape of Good Hope, the strength and might of the billows along that iron-bound coast being well known to mariners. In calm weather and under clear skies the Cape waters are very beautiful, reflecting as they do the deep blue of an unclouded sky. At night, sometimes, the phosphorus is seen upon the waves in masses of creamy light. When the south-east Trades pipe merrily through the rigging the atmosphere is clear and crisp, the waves are tipped with dancing foam, and all is light and motion. In these latitudes the ship makes good way, and for days and days together the sailor need scarcely trouble to shift a rope or block. The waters of the South Atlantic are very different in colour and in motion from those of the northern seas that surround our islands,

and the atmosphere is far more clear. The waters of Table Bay have been likened sometimes to those of the Mediterranean. The glitter also of the sea from great distances is different from the light that comes from sea-water on the English coast, being more bright and dazzling, and, as you catch a glimpse of it from a height of ground in the interior, the waves shine like burnished silver.

(28) The African veldt, however, is the most peculiar feature of all South African scenery. To begin with, the word itself expresses far more than is implied in our 'field,' as it indicates wide and rolling spaces. Occasionally it is transferred to the herbage itself, and a South African farmer will speak of 'sweet veldt' and 'sour veldt' in distinguishing between pastoral districts. In the Transvaal the great undulating plateaux which extend from the Drakenburg to the interior are named collectively the Hoogveldt or High veldt. But no Alp rises to the line of eternal snow, although, in winter, snow frequently lies thick on the hills.

The African farmer practises a change of veldt or pasturage, driving his flocks and herds down from the high veldt to the bush veldt. In the Cape Colony a large district round Richmond and Victoria West is called the Winter veldt, and in other places there is a distinction between koud or cold veldt and 'warm veldt.' The veldt, therefore, has a very wide application in South Africa. Generally speaking, its aspect is uniform and monotonous, the surface being covered with low stunted vegetation, resembling heather, and scattered mimosa or acacia bushes. The farm-houses themselves are not very picturesque or snug-looking as a rule, excepting perhaps in the vicinity of Capetown, where the building was done thoroughly and cheaply by slave labour in former days; and the wooded aspect of this particular region,

devoted principally to vineyards, adds to its charms. The up-country dwelling is a staring object in the veldt, reflecting back the midday sun from its corrugated iron roof and carefully white-washed walls.

(29) When the strength of the African sun is at its greatest in summer the veldt is very hot and barren-looking, its brown and parched surface cracking into large fissures or 'sluits,' as they are locally called, and radiating back the light with a strange simmering mirage, deceiving the eye and perplexing the judgment of the stranger. So clear is the atmosphere that distances are dwarfed, and the stranger, coming into Table Bay and looking up at the encircling walls of Table Mountain, judges them to be close over the city, whereas the distance is two or three miles. The roads across the veldt are not macadamised, but wind away as tracks cut out according to the whims or fancies of a post-cart driver, and twisting in long and sinuous lanes over the interminable spaces. Over these the slowly moving ox-waggon, with its white canvas covering, makes its way from point to point and across 'drifts' or fords of the rivers. Their halting-places are called 'outspans,' reserved for the public use; and here, in the summer noon, the kurveyor or waggoner is seen, with his unyoked span around him, taking his siesta and preparing for the evening or, perhaps, if it is moonlight, the night journey.

(30) The South African night is perhaps the most grateful time of all in the summer, and certainly the most beautiful. The sun—which has shone upon the parched veldt with pitiless fury from a brazen and unclouded sky—has set, with its outer disc visible to the very edge of the horizon, and suddenly, so it seems to the northerner accustomed to long grey twilights, the night comes on and the stars rush out. Hard outlines of distant mountains are softened and chastened, the

glaring inequalities and scarred features of the plain are covered up, and strange sounds and murmurs float into being. Nature, which had seemed wrapped in a sleepy midday swoon, revives again, the evening blossom or 'abend bloem' casts its fragrance around, and the veldt birds call to one another. So still is the air, that sounds travel immense distances, and the echoes from the distant farm-house nestling in the valley strike distinctly upon the ear. The Kaffir 'herd,' calling and chiding his wandering flock of sheep or of playful goats amongst the rocks, as they wend their way slowly to the kraal, is a familiar sight in the evening. Aloft, the shrill note of the kiwic or the Cape crowned plover, clear and loud, like the whistle of the northern curlew, pierces the sky; close by, the huge fruit-bats flit quickly in and out of the loquat trees, and the gliding night-jar, a migrant perhaps from the north, moves by on noiseless wing, just as is his wont along the hill-sides of England. Near the pools of water in lonely places may be seen the kingfisher, the owl or harrier hawk pursuing its prey, and, in the shadows, like a familiar spirit of the place, the strange and solemn umbrette that builds for itself such a huge structure to serve as a nest. There is one thing that will strike the Englishman, and this is that there are at the Cape no singing birds deserving the name. In the veldt the harsh grating sound of the knorhaan, or the clear whistle of the fiscal or butcher-bird, sitting on the top of a solitary 'doorn-boom,' or acacia, or, perhaps, the laughter-bird or bok-ma-korie, disturbs the echoes; but the ear will listen in vain for such rapturous songs as those of the thrush, blackbird, or skylark. There are many varieties of cuckoos, but they give no glad spring challenge, and the partridges utter quite a different note from that of their English cousins as they haunt the mountain side, their favourite

feeding-place. The plumage of certain birds, such as that of the starlings or spreos, is far more bright and flashing; but here again, as with the swallows, their note is less cheerful and familiar than in England. Still, to the stranger on the veldt, the bird-life is extremely interesting in every way.

(31) The larger game of South Africa, which generations ago formed such a very remarkable feature in the landscape, has been ruthlessly exterminated, except in certain spots, such as the Knysna and Zitzikama Forest, where the elephant and buffalo are still to be found. Here and there the bontebok and koo-doo are preserved, where the owners of the veldt are true naturalists and sportsmen. But in the days of the first discovery of the Cape, when the only human enemies of the larger animals were the Bushmen and Hottentots, the surface of the country must have presented an extraordinary sight. Nowhere in the world has such a variety of game birds and animals been collected together as in South Africa. Each locality was the habitat of some well-known fauna. In the plains myriads of antelopes, especially the springbok, wildebeest, quagga, pastured unmolested, except when the tiny Bushman threw his poisoned arrows and dug his deep pitfalls, or the lordly lions, followed by the jackals, wolves, and hyænas, exacted their portion. On the mountains the zebra, the congener of the wild ass in the plains of Tartary, the grey and red buck (called in Dutch the rheebok and vaal rheebok), the bounding klip-springer or rock-springer, known as the Cape chamois, could all be found in large quantities. On the wooded hill-sides the bushbok was always to be heard or seen, and a chase after him often disturbed the crouching Cape leopard that haunted the caves and ledges of the krantzes or cliffs, or scattered in hasty flight the herds of pig-faced baboons. In the deeper and lower glades the wild boar, the buffalo,

elephants, and rhinoceros, were to be found, whilst, by the banks of almost every stream, the unwieldy hippopotamus wallowed. Such animals also as the handsome waterbuck, the noble sable antelope, the gemsbok, massive eland, beautiful roan antelope, the oryx, the towering giraffe, were all to be met with within the borders of the Cape Colony. Now they are driven far to the north, and can be seen only along the Limpopo river, the Lebombo mountains, or in the inaccessible corners of Swazieland. The big game, which must have formed such a picturesque sight in the scenery of the South African veldt, and of which we have had descriptions from Barrow, Burchell, Sparrman, Le Vaillant, Smith, Harris, Gordon Cumming, Mayne Reid, Butler, and Selous, now live a precarious life only on the zone of Central Africa. Captain Harris, speaking of the vicinity of the Cashan mountains in the Transvaal, about fifty years ago, described the sight as resembling that of a Zoological Garden turned loose to graze. Sparrman, the Swedish naturalist, travelling along the southern borders of the Cape Colony from Table Bay to the Fish River, has given us perhaps the best description of what the country contained a hundred years ago.

(32) The game birds also of South Africa seemed to vie with the quadrupeds. There were the magnificent pauws or bustards, of which the largest, called the gom pauw, was found to weigh over thirty and even forty pounds, the Cape francolin or pheasant, as it is called, large packed coveys of grey and red partridges, wild duck, the common and the painted snipe, droves of guinea-fowl along the dry water-courses, the namaqua and the common quail, lying close in the rough grasses at certain times, and showing marvellously good sport. For the scudding ostrich the open plains of South Africa were and are still the natural habitat. Other

birds, such as the wheeling vultures, high in the heavens, the soaring lammer-fanger or lamb catcher, the enemy of the herdsman, the scarlet flamingo standing solemnly in the shallow lagoons or vleis, the Kaffir crane, the locust-birds, both the small kind and the stork, the owls, the eagles, and the touracos or loeris uttering from the recesses of a kloof their queer guttural note, together with countless smaller birds, are all to be met with in South Africa, and form a most attractive feature of the natural life of the country. Only in districts where the Kaffirs have settled is bird life scarce, owing to the relentless persecution carried on by the Kaffir boys, who are very skilful in destroying the birds with their knob kirris or clubs.

(33) Another essential feature of South African scenery is the flora; and it is a well-known fact amongst botanists, from the days of Sparrman, Thunberg, Lichtenstein, Burchell, and many others, that no country in the world has been able to compare with the Cape, if not in splendour, still in the number and variety of its wild plants. On the narrow limits of the Cape peninsula alone there are no less than sixty to seventy species of heaths to be found, and a corresponding number of orchids. In some elevated places, especially in the spring, the white fields of Cape everlastings are a feature in the landscape to be discerned far off, and here and there, in such districts as the Knysna and the south-west, acres of pink and scarlet gladioli redeem the barrenness of the veldt, and are as distinctly a feature in the landscape as the clouds of blue gentians are an ornament in the spring-time to the Swiss Alps. In sheltered nooks, the graceful tree ferns stand in solemn Druidical circles; and peeping out everywhere in moist places, the white arums show as thick as daisies in an English meadow. It must be remembered, however, that the prime of the

spring-time quickly comes and quickly goes, and that where the veldt has shown a carpet of beautiful flowers one month, the powerful rays of the sun will destroy it and make it brown and barren-looking the next month, and the droughts of the land are terrible in their length and severity. There are few deciduous trees, so the autumn lacks the golden hues of the northern forests and the various tints of the dead and dying leaves. But the Cape is a country where fruits ripen well. The vineyards of Constantia and of the Paarl are a notable feature in the landscape of the Western Province, and have acquired a world-wide notoriety. Here and there also the orange groves in autumn are a beautiful sight, and the hedges hang with quinces and pomegranates. At high elevations, at about 4,000 feet, all English fruits will ripen well, and it is the pride of many a mountain farmer to grow currants, gooseberries, and the familiar species of English apples. Peaches, apricots, strawberries, ripen well under the subtropical sun, and although they somewhat lack the flavour of the northern fruit, they are very good and luscious. There is no end to the variety of fruit that may be grown in a climate where in the valleys the mealies or Indian corn grows luxuriantly and the camellia blossoms thickly out of doors, and where, higher up, the flowers of our own colder climate thrive.



CHAPTER V.

The Provinces of the Cape Colony. The Western Province.

(1) The territorial divisions of a new country are naturally very different from those that prevail in an old. Such a word as 'county,' for instance, in England has been definitely and permanently fixed in its meaning for some time past, and possesses, moreover, in its origin and parochial associations, a peculiar and distinctive meaning which we can apply to English counties alone. In the Cape Colony the word cannot be said to be in use. There the land is mapped out into divisions, and these divisions again are grouped into provinces. The boundaries of these divisions and provinces have constantly been shifted or altered from time to time as new areas have been taken in or as old districts have been subdivided. At the time of the British occupation in 1806 there were only four Divisions : (1) The Cape, (2) Stellenbosch, (3) Swellendam, (4) Graaf Reinet. The last three were very extensive and loosely organised districts, where the authority of the Dutch East India Company was scarcely acknowledged. In fact at the beginning of this century it must be borne in mind that the Burghers of Swellendam and Graaf Reinet were dissatisfied with their lot, and were in open revolt against the authorities at Cape-town. *Stellenbosch* signified the whole of the present Cape Colony as far north as Little Namaqualand, and eastwards as far as the Gamka or Lion's River, in the present divisions of Prince Albert and Beaufort West ; *Swellendam* meant the south and south-east as far as Zwartkops

River and Algoa Bay, up to the Fish River Valley, a great feature of which was the Longkloof Valley; *Graaf Reinet* meant all the northern and north-eastern parts of the Colony as far as Colesberg, Tarka, and the northern slopes of the Fish River Rand¹. A new era, however, was to come with British occupation. From this time forward there was to be a more accurate survey of the territories, a new system of administration, and a more orderly settlement. As occasion demanded, the Government proclaimed separate districts, made a division, appointed a magistrate, and provided for its separate administration.

(2) In 1820 the planting of the Albany settlers in the East necessitated a general division of Cape Colony into two parts. The date of the separation of the Eastern and Western Provinces was February 19, 1836. In 1842 John Chase, a settler himself of 1820, describes the Provinces as follows :—

<i>The Western Province.</i>	<i>The Eastern Province.</i>
1. Cape division.	1. Albany division.
2. Stellenbosch „	2. Uitenhage „
3. Swellendam „	3. Somerset „
4. Worcester „	4. Cradock „
5. Clan William „	5. Graaf Reinet „
6. George „	6. Colesberg „
7. Beaufort „	

At this time the Western Province was under the jurisdiction of His Excellency the Supreme Governor, and the Eastern under his Honour the Lieutenant Governor, the latter officer's power being superseded whenever the Governor was in the Eastern Province. Over each Division a Civil Commissioner, being a resident magistrate and exercising large powers, presided. These divisions

¹ See Barrow's Map, 1797-98..

were still further split up into wards or field cornetcies'. This arrangement of the magisterial divisions and provinces remained in vogue for some years and naturally encouraged a separatist feeling between East and West. At the time of the great constitutional reforms of 1850-1851, when the Draft Ordinance was being discussed, a certain section of politicians advocated a Federal system and the division of South Africa into four Provinces, viz. (1) The Western Province of the Cape Colony, (2) The Eastern Province, (3) The Orange River Sovereignty, (4) Natal; each possessing distinct governments for local purposes. The control of the whole country from Cape-town as an official centre was objected to by many, and the two members for Grahamstown, Messrs. Godlonton and Lock, who assisted in framing the Draft Ordinance, submitted a protest, containing thirty-one reasons, against the proposed form of government, as it did not provide for the separate administration of the Eastern Province by the Eastern colonists themselves. Eventually, however, the constitution was framed, and the present electoral Circles or Provinces (with the exception of Griqualand West) were formed, and the old distinction between the Eastern and Western Provinces was gradually obliterated.

(3) It may be worth while to draw attention here to certain resemblances between Canada and the Cape in the progress of their political history. In both countries there was at first an alien people to be dealt with, having a separate character, bias and political training. Roughly speaking, the parallel is this: Lower Canada, or, as it is now called, the Province of Quebec, with its original French Roman Catholic population, planted along the St. Lawrence valley, may be regarded as the counterpart of the Western Province of the Cape with

¹ Chas. 'Cape of Good Hope,' p. 31.

its distinct and peculiar strata of Dutch and French colonists. In both countries a more energetic, keen, and business-like English element was brought into contact with the alien and more archaic elements, and fretted under the governing partnership so much that they desired provincial separation. Neither the French in Canada, nor Dutch at the Cape, could understand at first the free political life of English colonists. The Roman Catholic peasantry of the Quebec valley had been kept in leading strings by the Seigneurs under the Seignorial system, and the Dutch peasantry at the Cape had no political existence at all under the monopolist régime of the Dutch East India Company. In neither country were freeholds given, and the Dutch pioneer, although he might trek away for hundreds of miles, still held his acres as 'A Loan Farm' under a title revocable at will by the Company. In Lower Canada the Feudal system prevailed together with a distinctive civil and criminal law. Then came the great change when English colonists and the English Government introduced into both countries the ideas of Freehold and Franchise with all they involve, viz. the possession of private property and the exercise of private judgment in politics. At first, however, there was much soreness and irritation between the old and new colonists, the active English element objecting from time to time to be governed from either a Dutch or French centre, whether at Quebec or Capetown, and claiming provincial rights and provincial administration. Ultimately the Federal form of Government was found in Canada (1867) to be a remedy for provincial irritations, and, as we have already seen, in the Cape Colony the Federal idea was mooted as a cure for local friction in 1852, when the 1820 settlers of Albany claimed separate administrative powers round Port Elizabeth, Grahamstown, and the East. In both

countries the very differences of race and character have seemed to suggest the idea of the federal bond.

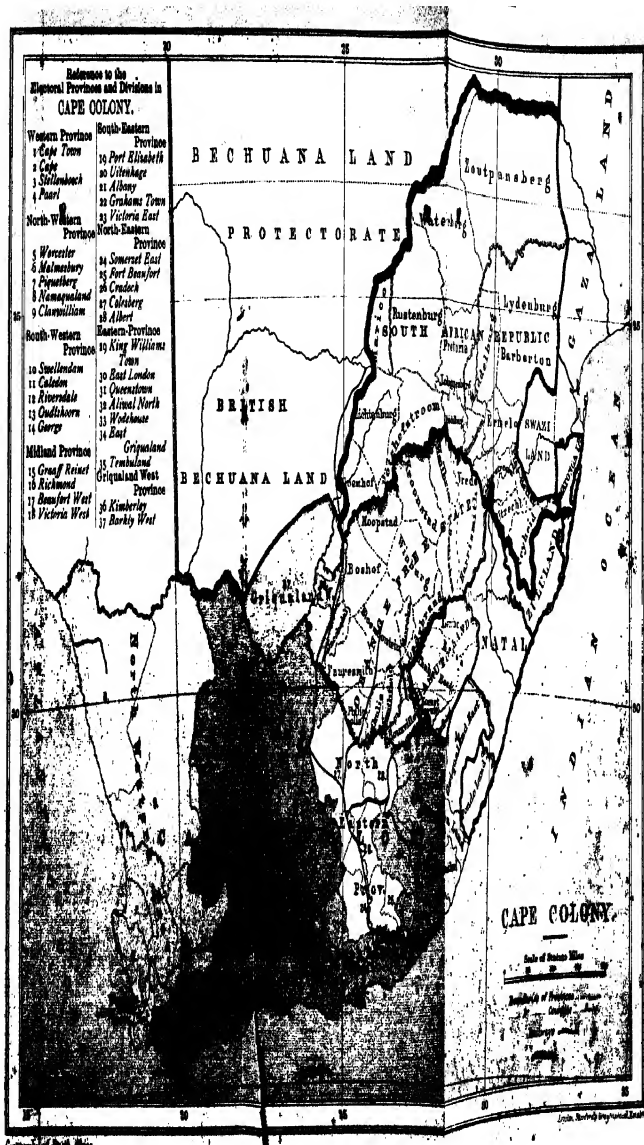
(4) In 1860, British Kaffraria was constituted a separate Government by Sir George Grey, and the Governor of the Cape Colony held the title of Governor of British Kaffraria, as well as that of High Commissioner for the management of native affairs in South Africa. In 1865, by the terms of the Annexation Bill, passed in the English House of Commons, British Kaffraria became part of the Cape Colony, although the colonists were hostile to the measure and deprecated the increase of territory. In this year two divisions, King Williamstown and East London, were created out of British Kaffraria, and, at the same time, more accurate geographical definitions were given to eight divisions, viz. Piquetberg, Little Namaqualand, Victoria West, Riversdale, Oudtshoorn, Richmond, Aliwal North, and Queenstown¹. The Cape Colony was working its way towards responsible government, and these divisions were made upon electoral considerations. In order that the districts might be represented more fairly the number of the Legislative Council was increased from fifteen to twenty-one. In 1872 the division of Wodehouse was created to make the representation of the Eastern and Western Provinces more equal, and so meet the objections of the Eastern colonists. The following are the provisions of the Seven Circles Bill, passed by the New Parliament of 1874:—

i. The Western Electoral Circle or Province, consisting of the electoral divisions of Cape Town, Cape division, Stellenbosch, and Paarl.

ii. The North-western Electoral Province, consisting of the electoral divisions of Worcester, Malmesbury, Piquetberg, Namaqualand, and Clanwilliam.

iii. The South-western Electoral Province, consisting

¹ Theal's 'Compendium,' p. 299.



of the electoral divisions of Swellendam, Caledon, Riversdale, Oudtshoorn, and George.

iv. The Midland Electoral Province, consisting of the electoral divisions of Graaf Reinet, Richmond, Beaufort West, and Victoria West.

v. The South-eastern Electoral Province, consisting of the electoral divisions of Port Elizabeth, Uitenhage, Grahamstown, Albany, and Victoria East.

vi. The North-eastern Electoral Province, consisting of the electoral divisions of Somerset East, Fort Beaufort, Cradock, Colesberg, and Albert.

vii. The Eastern Electoral Province, consisting of the electoral divisions of King Williamstown, East London, Queenstown, Aliwal North, and Wodehouse.

Griqualand West, or the Diamond Fields district, which has become the eighth province of the Cape Colony, has a separate history. It was created British territory by a proclamation of Sir Henry Barkly, dated 27th of October, 1871. After several kinds of administration were tried, to be described more fully in the narrative, Griqualand West was absorbed into the Cape Colony on October 18th, 1880. It may be remarked that towards the East the electoral areas of the Cape Colony have a tendency to multiply. In 1887 the Transkeian territories, Tembuland and Griqualand East, were organised as an electoral district, returning two members to the Assembly. Here the native vote predominates, and the progress of representative institutions is watched there with great interest and curiosity. What is done in the Transkei may be done elsewhere, and the native vote become, in course of time, an important factor in South African politics. This must be the case, especially with the Cape Colony, if it absorbs neighbouring territories, which are mainly native, and continues to do what she has done in the Transkei.

(5) The grouping of these provinces and divisions according to electoral considerations is very convenient from many points of view. It not only throws light upon the existing constitution of the Cape Colony, but serves also to illustrate certain geographical and natural peculiarities of the whole area of the country. Each province or electoral circle has some distinctive features of its own. The Midland Circle with its vast plains, elevated country, and karroos and grazing farms, will naturally differ from the Western Circle with its more populous and smaller, but cultivated area of wine-farms, and with its boundaries touching the sea at many points. But both will differ from the Eastern Circle with its swarms of natives and large extents of still undeveloped country in the background. The Griqualand West electoral circle, with its busy mining centre of Kimberley, will provide us again with a study of the development of a peculiar form of industry, wholly unknown to the rest. Each circle or province, in fact, may be said to represent in nearly every case some form of industry and wealth peculiarly its own; and this interest finds its adequate exponents in the members returned for the Legislative Council and those for the Legislative Assembly. For the Cape Colony, it must be remembered, has adopted the bicameral system of representation.

(6) The following is a brief account of the distribution of electoral power in the Circles, together with some details relating to voters, area, and population :—

i. The Western Province returns three members for the Legislative Council and ten members for the Legislative Assembly. The latter are thus distributed—four for the City of Capetown, and two each for the Cape Division, Stellenbosch, and the Paarl. The area of the Circle, according to the census summaries, is 1,852 square miles. The population in 1875 numbered 85,944, of

which 41,484 were Europeans¹. Since then they have increased to 131,181, of whom 60,955 are Europeans (1891). In December, 1883, the registered voters of this Province were 11,344, of whom only 5,888 recorded their votes, showing a great indifference to constitutional privileges; an indifference which has shown itself on many important occasions.

ii. The North-western Province returns three members for the Legislative Council, and ten members for the Legislative Assembly, viz. two each from Malmesbury, Worcester, Piquetberg, Clanwilliam, and Namaqualand. The area of this circle is 68,361 square miles, with a population of 74,404 (1875), of whom 29,668 were Europeans. In 1891 the total was 103,314, of whom 41,058 were Europeans. In December, 1883, the registered voters of the circle were 9,538.

iii. The South-western Province returns three members for the Legislative Council, and ten members for the Legislative Assembly, viz. two each from Caledon, Swellendam, Riversdale, Oudtshoorn, and George. The area of this circle is 15,422 square miles, and the population 81,684 (1875), of whom 41,444 were Europeans. In 1891 the total was 114,279, of whom 57,427 were Europeans. The registered voters in 1883 were 10,670, of whom only 3,514 recorded their votes.

iv. The Midland Province returns three members to the Legislative Council, and eight members to the Legislative Assembly, viz. two each from Graaf Reinet, Richmond, Beaufort West, and Victoria West. The area of this circle is 67,090 square miles, and the population 71,364 (1875), of whom 31,168 were Europeans. In 1891 the total was 96,710, of whom 42,520 were Europeans. The registered voters in 1883 were 6,682, of whom 3,099 only recorded their votes.

¹ 'Preliminary Report of the Director of the Census' (1891).

v. The South-east Province returns three members to the Legislative Council, and ten members to the Legislative Assembly, from Uitenhage, Port Elizabeth, City of Grahamstown, and Victoria East. The area of this circle is 14,009 square miles, and the population 97,275 (1875), of whom 35,876 were Europeans. In 1891 the total was 139,917, of whom 47,724 were Europeans. The registered voters in 1883 were 9,875.

vi. The North-eastern Province returns three members to the Legislative Council, and ten to the Legislative Assembly, viz. two each from Somerset East, Fort Beaufort, Cradock, Colesberg, and Albert. The area of this circle is 21,494 square miles, and the population 81,399 (1875), of whom 30,491 were Europeans. In 1891 the total was 119,032, of whom 42,894 were Europeans. The registered voters in 1883 were 7,011, of whom only 2,990 recorded their votes.

vii. The Eastern Province returns three members to the Legislative Council, and ten to the Legislative Assembly, viz. two each from King Williamstown, East London, Queenstown, Aliwal North, and Wodehouse. The area of this circle is 11,722 square miles, its population 228,914 in 1875, of whom 27,791 only were Europeans. In 1891 the total was 250,099, of whom 43,882 were Europeans. The registered voters in 1883 were 7,469, of whom only 2,390 recorded their votes.

In connection with this Province should be associated the recently formed Electoral Divisions of Tembuland and Griqualand East, across the Kei in Kaffirland, each returning one member to Parliament, in accordance with Act 30 of 1887. This is a notable instance of the extension of the franchise and parliamentary privileges to an almost purely native constituency. The area of East Griqualand is 7,511 square miles, its population, according to the 1891 Census, numbers 152,609, of whom

4,114 were Europeans. The number of registered voters in 1887 were 1,747¹.

The area of Tembuland is 4,055 square miles, and together with the Transkei, its estimated population is 333,963, of whom 6,198 are Europeans. The registered voters in 1887 were 1,481.

viii. The eighth Province was known originally as Griqualand West and the Diamond Fields District. It returns one member to the Legislative Council, and six members to the Legislative Assembly, viz. four for the town of Kimberley, and two for Barkly East and West. Its area is 17,800 square miles, its population in 1877, when a census of Griqualand West was taken, was 44,877, of whom 12,374 were Europeans. It is now calculated that the population of Kimberley alone exceeds 50,000, and that the whole population is 83,115, of whom 29,469 are Europeans.

(7) These figures call for some remarks. It will be noticed in the first place how unevenly the population is distributed. The Western Circle, with its area of 1,852 square miles and its population of 131,181, shows a fair average of inhabitants to the square mile. The Midland Circle, on the contrary, with its area of 67,090 square miles and population of 96,710, shows a very small average per square mile. The same remark applies to the North-western and North-eastern Circles.

In the Eastern Circle we have already noticed the density of the black population. Here the Kaffirs outnumbered the Colonists by more than eight to one in 1875. There were only 27,791 Europeans amongst a population of 228,914, and the Kaffirs are still (1891) on the increase. In Tembuland there are 173,675 of aboriginal natives, in the Transkei 152,328, in East Griqualand 141,621. Further, it may be noticed with regard to these

¹ 'Statistical Register of the Cape of Good Hope,' 1888, p. 23.

last two native territories, that, according to the latest official returns, the average per square mile is more than fifteen persons in Griqualand East and more than thirty-six persons in Tembuland, proving the important facts already hinted at that in the Cape Colony and South Africa generally the natives thrive and multiply under our rule, and that the districts and reservations they at present inhabit are the most densely populated of all, if we except the Cape Peninsula and the environs of Capetown. What is here stated with regard to the Kaffirs of Tembuland and Griqualand East may also be stated of those who live in conterminous territories, as Basutoland and Pondoland, and also in the Natal locations and Zulu reserves.

(8) The case is very different in New Zealand and Australia and in the continent of North America. In all these countries it is well known that the natives are dying out more or less quickly, and are unable, especially in the case of the Red Indian, to assimilate themselves to the customs and manner of life of their conquerors. As there is a negro difficulty of considerable dimensions in the southern parts of the United States, so there is a native problem in the eastern regions of South Africa, not yet complicated in the same way by franchise considerations, but still interesting enough to attract the closest attention of statesmen at an early date. With regard to another difficult question, as to whether the populations, white and black, are of a shifting and migratory character; it may be said, generally, that in the more settled parts of the Cape Colony, and Natal, both in urban or rural districts, the proportion of the population remains very much as it was in 1873, allowing of course for the great natural increase since then¹. But in mining centres it is different. Both the Dia-

¹ Appendix I, On the Distribution of Population in Urban and Rural Areas.

mond Fields and the Gold Fields in the Transvaal, and now further north, Mashonaland, exercise a great attractive power upon colonists and immigrants. They draw also thousands of natives from every part of South Africa, as miners, labourers, and store servants. The rough manual labour of railways, bridges, mines, has generally been effected by the Kaffirs. This native element flows backward and forward in a very unaccountable way, and the Zanzibar boy, the Damara boy, the Natal Kaffirs, Basutos, Tongas, and strangers from the northern valleys, swell the census at certain centres, forming a most motley crowd. When they have earned enough money they return home and spread abroad a knowledge of the white man and his ways to the furthest corners of the dark continent. The Indian coolies in Natal and along the seaboard form also another migratory and somewhat unaccountable element, and, as they are indentured for a term of years, they drift back again, although this is by no means a universal tendency. Amongst the white men themselves, Treks are a feature of South African progress. The Boer Treks are well known in South African history, both across the Orange and Vaal rivers, and, more recently, the Mashonaland Trek has attracted hundreds of Europeans and South African colonists further north. One Trek seems to follow another, and a strange migratory instinct has often possessed all classes in South Africa. This peculiarity of the country, however, renders a close and accurate numbering of the people a most difficult undertaking. It imparts also to the whole community a feeling of unrest inimical to quiet rural pursuits.

The Western Province.

(9) Apart, however, from their relative position and peculiar importance in the governing system of the colony,

these circles or provinces demand a closer attention on all matters relating to their history, products, climate, and distinctive development. For more than 150 years the early history of the South African settlements was confined to the Western Province, Although the smallest, it is the most important of all the Provinces, its chief town, Capetown, being the metropolis of South Africa and the seat of government. It embraces the Cape Peninsula and the shores of Table Bay on the north, and False Bay on the south. Inland, this province can boast of the most fertile vineyards in the colony, nearly two-thirds of the vinestocks in the whole country being found here. When the first colonists landed on the shores of Table Bay, they found it occupied by roving Hottentot clans, whose wealth consisted in sheep and cattle, and the policy of the Dutch East India Company was generally framed with a view of having as little as possible to do with the natives. By leave of the authorities, old soldiers and servants of the Company were allowed to cultivate the soil and provide the resident officials and the crews of passing ships with milk and vegetables. In those days the crews were often smitten with scurvy and disease, and looked forward to the Cape as a kind of sanatorium half-way between India and Europe. To the mariners and merchants of many generations there was no more familiar sight along the ocean path than the cliffs of Agulhas and the long mountain ridge of the Cape Peninsula. In the Castle of Capetown the Dutch officials ruled with a jealous and exclusive sway, and the necessities of food and water were supplied to passing crews of different nationalities with a grudging hand, as the commercial rivalries in the far east became more keen, and the sceptre seemed to slip away from the hands of the proud Dutch East India Company. Although Table Bay was situated so favourably, at the

great highway of commerce, it never became under Dutch rule an emporium of trade. The thought of continental commerce never occurred to the Dutch. The Castle at Capetown was an official post, first and foremost, under the rule of the Chamber of XVII, and formed the stronghold of a commercial monopoly. In New England and along the shores of North America the colonising energies of Europe were in full play, whilst at Capetown the narrow official circle lived a feeble, fluttering existence.

(10) Slavery had its sway here as elsewhere, but little was made of slave labour, the country not being adapted for sugar, cotton, or coffee plantations, on which slaves were most profitably employed. The Company's officials preferred to be served by Malays imported from the Malay Archipelago, the Bushmen and Hottentots being too dirty and troublesome for domestication. Of the Kaffir clans far to the eastward the Dutch officials knew nothing. • Little by little, however, a small town grew up around the Castle, and little by little the French Huguenot immigrants and their descendants trekked or migrated inwards, beginning the work of African pioneering. There was, however, no rush of Hollanders from the Fatherland, no state-aided scheme of emigration, no New Netherlands in South Africa, as there was along the Hudson River and in the country of the Manhattans. There were hunters and pathfinders in South Africa, but they were very different from the fur-traders of the North American continent, and shot for their daily wants rather than for trade and purposes of commerce. Nor did the Jesuit fathers find near Capetown such a congenial field for mission work and geographical exploration, as along the lakes and rivers of the far West of North America. The Roman Catholic religion was completely tabooed in Table Bay by the Protestant Dutch ¹.

(11) When Quebec and New York were thriving and populous towns, Capetown was the representative of a dull and archaic colonial life. The character of the country also was misrepresented and misunderstood for a long time, intelligent travellers seldom turning their footsteps thither; and it was not until such botanists as Thunberg, Sparrman, Lichtenstein, and others, who must be regarded as the earliest practical pioneers of the country, had examined the wonderful flora of the country, that its resources and capabilities began truly to be understood. As a port of call for vessels going backwards and forwards no spot in the world was better known or more often described; but no voyagers had time or inclination to explore the back country, and the Dutch officials, as Sparrman observes, took care to magnify the terrors of the country, the wildness of the inhabitants, and the ferocity of its carnivora. Moreover, English ships from the East generally used St. Helena as their port of call, and avoided the Cape as dangerous and inhospitable. The 'infames scopuli' of its rugged coasts were, in those days of imperfect navigation, a real danger to all the seafaring nations of Europe. No friendly beacon-light warned them off the coast, no true soundings or observations helped the pilot to avoid the treacherous currents of these seas.

(12) The present population of Capetown and its immediate precincts is 59,680, allowing 51,083 to Capetown, 4,973 to Woodstock, 2,923 to Sea Point and Green Point, lying on the right hand as you enter Table Bay, and 61 to Robben Island, a small island at the entrance itself of Table Bay, where there is a leper hospital¹. The general aspect of Capetown itself is peculiar and interesting. Looking at the town from the sea the huge granite walls of Table Mountain, clear cut against a sky that is often

¹ Report of the Director of the Census, 1891, pp. 27-28.

brilliant and cloudless, seem to stand around it like some vast natural amphitheatre. The air is often close and stifling, excepting when the south-east sweeps down the gorges and blows uninterruptedly through the streets for days together, or when the north-west wind blows over the Bay. The water supply comes in various rills and rivulets from the mountain above, and by artificial means the precious fluid is carefully stored. Viewed from the ridges of Table Mountain, Capetown seems laid out with a certain Dutch exactness and regularity along broad streets running from the mountain towards the bay. Along these streets in the old days the worthy Dutch burghers built their houses, each house having its vine-arbours, its separate stoep or verandah, under which the occupants loved to sit and gossip and sip their coffee. Traces of these old stoeps, built up at different levels and entirely at haphazard, are still discernible along the surface of the modern pavement, making them uneven and irregular. There is a broad piazza or open space near the walls of the ancient Castle, which, with its high parapets, embrasures, and old cannon, takes the visitor back to the days of the Dutch Company. On one of the projecting spurs of Table Mountain stands a dismantled and ruined fort, another relic of Dutch occupation. As the eye ranges over the city, the oak avenue, especially in spring, supplies a green and welcome band of foliage, with the Government House on one side and the Botanical Gardens on the other. Below, the waters of Table Bay look busy with the ships lying at anchor and the crews of Malay fishermen landing their fish or making their way slowly in from the offing. Outside, the long protecting arm of the costly and toil-won breakwater shields the vessels from the north-west gales.

(13) From Table Mountain the broad features of Table Bay are distinctly visible. The long curve of the shore,

the white sandy beaches, the mainland opposite, and, closer in, the Cape Flats, which are in reality the narrow bush-covered isthmus lying between Table Bay and False Bay, lie spread before the spectator. On the Cape Flats is the Royal Observatory, the temporary home of the great Herschel and of a long line of celebrated astronomers. Here, under the cloudless skies of the Cape, the heavens have been mapped out and the glories of these southern skies revealed. Table Mountain, with its tall ridges rising up close by, partially obstructs the vision of the astronomer, but in all other respects the Observatory is most favourably situated. Here more recently astronomy has been most wonderfully illustrated by a sister science, viz. photography, and fresh discoveries have been won from the Cape skies. Not far from the Observatory is the isolated farm-house of Oude Molen, where the savage chief Cetywayo was doomed to linger in captivity. Nearly opposite this temporary prison-house of the Zulu chief, and in speaking contrast with it, is the Zonnebloem Training Institute for Kaffir Catechists, close under the projecting spur of Table Mountain. Following the bend of Table Mountain to the southern slopes, one of the richest and most attractive views in South Africa can be gained. The sloping vineyards look neat and trim, the homesteads snug and prosperous, and more trees and cultivated plots will be seen close together here than in any other part of South Africa.

(14) The public buildings and institutions of Capetown, with the exception perhaps of the Houses of Parliament, do not strike the visitor as being very magnificent, especially when contrasted with Canadian or Australian standards. The very site of the town, cooped up and cramped under Table Mountain, may account for its meagre aspect. No country in the world could probably have possessed better Botanical and Zoological Gardens;

or a better Museum, than South Africa, when we take into consideration the marvellous wealth of its flora and fauna, together with its mineral and other wealth. Yet no city of its size and importance has less to show in this respect. At the Grey Library scholars will find, in this distant nook of the world, a number of rare and valuable books, bequeathed to the Colony by Sir George Grey, formerly Governor of the Colony, and a most keen student of native languages, customs and character. It has often been remarked how different the fortunes of the metropolis of South Africa might have been if somewhere near the Peninsula a broad river through the mainland had invited settlement and progress. Riverine provinces might have grown up and a colonising population might have extended for miles into the interior, opening up its numerous resources from end to end. A broad and navigable river also would have kept all sections in touch with one another, whilst, as it turned out in South Africa, the band of emigration passing northwards and eastwards in dribblets seemed hopelessly cut off by intervening spaces of veldt and high mountain ranges. But, as has already been pointed out, the absence of permanently flowing rivers and of safe harbours and bays differentiates South Africa from almost every other country.

(15) The Malay inhabitants, forming as they do such a large portion of the population of the Cape Peninsula, require a separate notice. They have been found to number about 13,907, and constitute the fishing and working population of the Cape Peninsula. They are especially useful as coachmen and cooks, and some of them keep shops and stores. They must be distinguished in their history and origin from the aboriginal Hottentots, half-castes, Kaffirs, Damaras and Zanzibar boys, who are sometimes found in the labour market of Capetown. Although

brought from Batavia so many years ago, they have amalgamated very little with the white or coloured population of South Africa, and, without forming exactly a Malay quarter in Capetown, they are strikingly different in dress, custom and habits from the rest of the inhabitants. They are Mohammedans in religion, and occasionally a few of their number make pilgrimages to Mecca to drink the sacred water of Zemzem, and on their return to Capetown are treated with great deference. To a great extent they have preserved an Oriental fatalism, and in times of epidemics, such as small-pox, are singularly difficult to manage. They have rarely strayed far into the interior, and keep as a rule to the chief sea-port towns. They represent an old and unprogressive element, which for many generations has been satisfied to remain where they were planted, and now serve the European with a singularly easy service. They are extremely fond of gala days, and on any especial occasion, such as the Queen's birthday, the Malays, with their turbans and bright costumes, form a very prominent and picturesque element in the throng. On the whole they are peaceful and law-abiding, and the use of the Malay kreiss and the custom of running amok, so well known in the Asiatic Archipelago, have long since been abandoned by them. At the same time they have never made amenable converts to the Christian religion, and constitute to all intents and purposes a separate caste. They are totally unlike the Indian coolies and traders in Natal and Eastern Africa.

(16) The towns and villages of the Western Province or Circle naturally fall into two groups. (i) The suburban villages near Capetown, such as Mowbray and Rondebosch with a population of 6,486, Newlands and Claremont with 6,237, Wynberg with 4,947. To these must be added Simon's Bay, the naval station, and Kalk Bay, a

seaside resort, with 5,030. These are all situated on the Peninsula of Capetown, and are inhabited chiefly by the business and professional men of the metropolis, who find the sheltered slopes of Table Mountain preferable to the windy streets of Capetown. A railway connects the naval station of Simonstown with Capetown, a distance of sixteen miles, and passes through the suburban villages, connecting them all together.

(ii) Further inland are the more important agricultural towns of this Province. *The Paarl*, with a population of 7,663, is a long straggling town built for the most part on both sides of one main street extending for seven or eight miles. It is so called from a huge granite monolith lying on the top of a hill close by, and visible a long way off, especially after rain, when it glistens in the sunlight. The Dutch word for stone is 'paarl,' corresponding to the English 'pearl.' The Paarl is an active centre of the wine industry, and the houses are built after the old Dutch pattern, being in many cases roomy and comfortable. Most of these houses have a large allotment or erf, in which vegetables and grapes are grown to great perfection. *Stellenbōsch*, with a population of 5,981, was so called after a Dutch Governor of the name of Van der Stell, who built a residence here in 1684. The town itself lies close under the Drakenstein mountains, and is well laid out in the old Dutch style. The streets are broad and straight, and are well shaded with trees. The oak avenues are especially fine, and here, if anywhere, is the popular abode of the descendants of the old Dutch and French settlers. Here is a Theological Seminary in which the ministers or predikants of the Dutch Reformed Church are prepared for their work, and here also is a College, a public school and a junior school, which provide for the educational wants of pupils of all grades. Stellenbosch may be regarded as the

educational centre for the Dutch and French population of the western and neighbouring Provinces. In connexion with Stellenbosch must be mentioned Somerset West and Somerset West Strand, with a population of 2,467, on the eastern shores of False Bay. The Hottentots Holland Mountains, plainly visible from the Cape Peninsula, are the great feature of this neighbourhood, running down to Cape Hangklip.

(17) Next in importance is Wellington, with a population of 2,725. The town lies at the foot of a gorge called Bain's Kloof, and is about forty-five miles distant from Capetown. Its chief industry is that of Cape cart and waggon making, a most useful and necessary industry, when so much of South African transport and travelling has to be done by these means. Wellington is also noted for its boot and shoe manufactories. Here too are many educational centres, the most important of which is the Huguenot Seminary conducted by American ladies, and educating on the average 250 pupils. Another interesting village in the Western Province is Fransche Hoek, i.e. the French Corner, with a population of about 1000, where, after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, many of the French immigrants to the Cape were planted. It lies in the electoral division of the Paarl, and, like this town, is famed for its vineyards, fruit and vegetables.



CHAPTER VI.

The North-West with the German Settlements.

The South-West and the Midland Provinces.

(1) *The North-western Province.* As might be expected, from its immense area of 68,361 square miles, more than half the size of Great Britain and Ireland, the products of this Province are varied and numerous. It has a long coast-line, reaching nearly from Table Bay to the mouth of the Orange River, a distance of 350 miles. The most populous and important place in this Province is O'okiep, with a population of 1,902¹, the centre of the Namaqualand copper mines. The mines of Concordia, Spektakel, Springbok fontein, and Kodaş, have long been celebrated in the mining world and have been extremely profitable. A line of railway, ninety miles in length, has been constructed by the Cape Copper Mining Company, connecting O'okiep with Port Nolloth on the coast. The population of this port is about 821. The place received its name from an officer in Her Majesty's Navy who visited it in 1854. Another important town in this province is Worcester, with a population of 5,571, built close to the entrance of the Hex River valley, up which the Western Railway finds its way to the higher level of the karroo. The town is laid out in the old Dutch fashion, with wide and straight streets crossing one another at right angles and bordered with rows of trees, chiefly eucalypti or gum trees. The water is led down from the neighbouring mountains by means of a long furrow or aqueduct, which distributes the priceless boon

¹ Report of the Director of the Census, 1891.

to the various erven or plots of ground in the town. The view of the neighbouring mountains is grand and imposing, and in winter their summits are covered with snow. Worcester is the centre of a large agricultural district, the best farms of which are found nestling close under the mountains and along the sides of the water-courses, where irrigation is easy. Not far off are the mineral waters of Brant Vlei, famed throughout South Africa for their healing properties, and, high up in the mountains, is the village of Ceres (2,259), a favourite resort of invalids from Europe suffering from consumption. Probably there is no place in Algeria at a similar elevation of 1,700 feet that boasts of a more delightful climate than Ceres. To the north and east there is an extensive back country in the divisions of Calvinia and Fraserburg, and the road to the western highlands of Hantam and Roggeveldt passes through Ceres. In this vicinity is the noted Tulbagh Valley, along part of which the Breede River flows. The view from the spurs of the Cold Bokkeveldt and from the great Winterhoek itself (6,840 feet) conveys to the spectator a true idea of the beauty and sublimity of these South African Alps. Far as the eye can range—and it can range very far in South Africa—the lines of rugged peaks rise one upon another in bare and rugged grandeur, the haunt of the bounding klipspringer or Cape chamois, and a refuge still for the Cape leopards and a few of the smaller wild animals. In spring the deep trench-like depressions of the mountains are covered with a most extraordinary wealth of flowers, and in the Tulbagh Valley itself there are no better sites in the colony for sloping maize fields and for terraced vineyards. *Tulbagh* (639) is only about seventy-eight miles from Capetown, and is connected with it by means of the Western Railway.

(2) To the west of Worcester lies Malmesbury, with a population of about 3,961, famed for its broad acres of wheat and barley. Here is the best wheat-producing area of the Cape Colony, the quantity raised annually being greater than in any other division of the Cape Colony. In 1889 it amounted to 513,775 bushels¹. In this part of the colony the rains fall at a favourable time for ploughing, a process still often carried out by the primitive yokes of oxen. Some of the old threshing-floors, also, where wheat was trampled out by the oxen, are still to be seen in out-of-the-way farms of Worcester and Malmesbury. Nearly due west of Malmesbury, on a small river flowing into Jacob's Cove, is Mamre, a Moravian settlement of 1,273 inhabitants, and an offshoot from the mother mission station of Genadendal in the Caledon district. *Saron* is another mission station in the Tulbagh division, with a population of 1,326, chiefly coloured, and employed by the farmers in the district. Amongst other places in this province are Porterville (621), Piquetberg (461) in the Piquetberg division, Hopefield (555), Darling (231) in the Malmesbury division, Clanwilliam (708), and van Rhyn's dorp (109) in the Clanwilliam division. Along the coast-line are the two small anchorages of Lambert's Bay and Doorn Bay, and the wider mouth of St. Helena Bay discovered by the Portuguese.

(3) The scenery of this province is most varied and diversified. To pass from the Paarl Valley and Malmesbury corn-fields to the heights of the Cold Bokkeveldt is to pass from the regions of subtropical heat to a climate resembling parts of North Europe, where apples and currants ripen well, and maize, and the vine, oranges, lemons, and citrons can no longer reach perfection. The plateaux of the Hantam Mountains are high and healthy,

¹ The Cape 'Statistical Register.'

and especially adapted for horse-breeding. In the governorship of Lord Charles Somerset this district was especially reserved for horses. Calvinia, although only one of the divisions of the North-west Province, is of enormous extent, being 400 miles long and 300 broad. The future of this province, if its natural advantages were utilised, should be great.

(4) *The German Colonies.* In connexion with the North-west Province, it is necessary to mention the German settlements that adjoin them beyond the Orange River. It must be remembered that Walvisch Bay, the only port along the coast, had been annexed by the British Government, at the instance of the late Sir Bartle Frere, on March 12, 1878. The whole of the interior of Damaraland and Great Namaqualand were regarded as falling within the sphere of British influence, and it was never contemplated that any European power would step in. Diplomatic relations had long been entered into with Kamaherero, the chief of the Hinterland or back-country, and Commissioner Coates Palgrave, an official in the pay of the Cape Government, and Major Musgrave afterwards had resided at his chief kraal. There were also a certain number of missionaries of the Rhenish Mission resident in the land and a few English traders¹. On the coast a Capetown firm had obtained from the Cape Government a lease of certain guano islands, which were a source of profit, and the whole littoral was regarded as under colonial rule. The chief of the country had also given mining rights and privileges to Mr. Lewis, a British subject. Certain German traders, however, had arrived at places along the coast, and at Angra Pequena German factories were set up. The Cape Government of the day, being appealed

¹ Article in 'Fortnightly Review,' by W. Greswell, September, 1884. See also the Addendum below.

to, declined to undertake the responsibility of protecting Angra Pequena, so, both at this harbour and at Sandwich Harbour, the German flag was hoisted and a protectorate declared from Cape Frio to the Orange River. The German protectorate has not resulted, as yet, in any very great good to the Germans. Walvisch Bay commands the road to the interior and is still in British hands. The country is dry, barren, and waterless, and, although minerals abound, the cost of transport is very heavy. The freight of an ox-waggon from Otzibingue to or from the coast, a distance of 120 miles, is £25. A large tract of loose and difficult sand is interposed between the coast and the interior.

(5) The Damaras and Ovambos are an unruly set of savages, and very much inferior in every way to the Basuto and Fingoe clans of the east coast. Cattle are their main source of wealth, but the supreme ambition of a Damara is to gain possession of guns and ammunition. Gun running can be easily effected in a country divided between two jurisdictions, between which rivalries exist. The Hottentots are buyers to some extent of tea, coffee, sugar, and flour; but, as labourers, agriculturists, and miners, as well as purchasers, they are inferior to Kaffirs. The copper mines of the country, like those of O'okiep, may be developed, but the process of development is slow. The motive of the Germans is doubtless to open up a trade with the interior by way of the west coast. The expedition of the German traveller, Dr. Höpfner, in 1883-4, from Congo to Damaraland, had shown this possibility. Quite recently, diplomatic relations between England, the Cape Colony, and Germany have resulted in an agreement by which access to the interior has been made more easy for Germany. As a field for European immigration the German protectorate is well-nigh useless.

The boundaries of the protectorate are on the north, the latitude of the mouth of the Cunene River, which separates it from the Portuguese province of Mossamedes. This line is carried eastward past a place called Andersson's Station, where the Okavango is struck, up to longitude 20° E. This line is preserved until the Orange River is reached. A glance at the map will prove that this area by itself is of not much use for colonists. Its eastern boundaries sink into the barren Kalahari Desert. Minerals may be discovered, but, as above mentioned, the cost of transport is extremely heavy. In due course of time a light railway may be constructed.

The South-western Province.

(6) This province, which comes next in order, possesses a very extensive coast-line from Cape Agulhas, the most southerly point of Africa, to Plettenberg Bay, named after a Dutch farmer (1778). One of the oldest established divisions of this province is Swellendam, founded in 1745. At one time the Swellendam Division was of an enormous size, reaching to Algoa Bay¹, but now it has been reduced to the area of country lying between the Langebergen and the sea, and ending at Plettenberg Bay. It is an instance of the subdivision of wide districts into smaller areas. Riversdale was at one time part of the division of Swellendam, but was erected into a separate fiscal division in 1858 and named after Mr. Harry Rivers, subsequently Treasurer General of the Colony. Riversdale has the reputation of possessing some of the very best grazing country in the whole of the Cape Colony, suitable for sheep, cattle, horses, mules, and ostriches, but its area is somewhat limited.

The South-west Province has three harbours, the landlocked bay of the Knysna (1,278), Mossel Bay (2,064),

¹ See Barrow's Map, 1806.

and Port Beaufort, an insignificant anchorage at the mouth of the Breede River flowing into St. Sebastian Bay. None of these, however, are of any great commercial value, as they lie completely out of the way of the railways and outside the main arteries of commerce, which, in the Cape Colony, do not pass from west to east but from south to north. As already pointed out, the districts of the George and Knysna are the best timbered, and, in many respects, the most beautiful in all South Africa. The influences of the warm waters of the Mozambique current are felt along its coast-line, and the vegetation is varied and beautiful. To strangers, this part of Africa seems wonderfully green and fresh-looking when compared with the parched and arid-looking character of the interior. Along the coast, especially in the Brodasdorp division, fisheries are carried on by hundreds of people, the close vicinity of the Agulhas Banks furnishing always a rich and prolific fishing-ground.

(7) The chief towns of this Province, which are almost entirely agricultural in their character, are Oudtshoorn (5,877), lying sixty-five miles to the north of Mossel Bay and to the south of the Zwartebergen. The chief industry of Oudtshoorn is tobacco farming, this division producing in 1888 no less than 3,071,050 lbs. out of the total of 4,693,881 lbs. for the whole Colony. This tobacco is used largely for dipping sheep. Oudtshoorn is noted also for its Congo brandy and its ostriches, parts of the country being admirably adapted for these birds. A peculiar trade is distinctive of this division. It is calculated that every year 2,000 ox and mule waggons leave it, laden with tobacco, dried fruit, and other produce, and find their way across the karroo and eastwards to the furthest limits of the colony, exchanging and selling as they go along. These caravans are said to go on 'togt,' and make very profitable

journeys. Should railways be extended largely through the country and bring the east and west closer together, the occupation of these caravans would be gone to some extent. Near Oudtshoorn are the celebrated stalactite Cango caves, said to rival in some respects the famous Kentucky caves.

(8) The town of Swellendam (1,725) lies on a tributary of the Breede River, 140 miles east of Capetown. It has grown very slowly since 1745, as the population will show, and is the centre of a quiet agricultural life. The town is close to the Langeberg range; a most picturesque line of mountains, pronounced by Mr. Anthony Trollope to be the loveliest in the colony¹. George or Georgetown (3,666) lies in a well-watered and well-timbered district, and is considered one of the prettiest towns in the colony. The division of George is bisected by the Outeniqua Range, on one side of which is sour veldt and on the other sweet veldt. The Outeniqua mountains have been likened by travellers to the lower Pyrenees, and are very different from the usual type of South African mountains. Robertson (2,044), Riversdale (1,799), Caledon (2,076), Montagu (1,296), Napier (539), Calitzdorp (991), are all large and prosperous agricultural villages in this province, with a certain family likeness. Caledon, named after Lord Caledon, Governor of the Cape in 1807, is noted for its four mineral springs, Montagu and Robertson for their wine and brandy, Riversdale for its large aqueduct, public park (called Meurant's Park), and water-works. One of the finest sea-bathing resorts of the colony is at the mouth of the Kafir Kuil's River. A road has been carried through Garcia's Pass, across the Langebergen, at a cost of £30,000, to connect Riversdale with the interior; but these towns and villages of the South-west Province,

¹ Trollope's 'South Africa,' vol. i. p. 149.

situated behind the numerous mountains of the country, are very much isolated.

(9) The chief sea-port town of the Province is Mossel Bay, 240 miles from Capetown, and 191 from Port Elizabeth, with a population of 2,064. Here is good anchorage in north-west and south-west gales, but the bay is exposed to the south-east, like most of the South African roadsteads. As a trading centre and depôt Mossel Bay labours under the disadvantage of having no railway communication; a drawback which is equally applicable to the Knysna (1,278). The Knysna harbour is certainly the most perfect natural refuge in South Africa. It is also the most picturesque. To enter it is possible only for steamers of light draught, of about twelve to fifteen feet, and the entrance even then is made with difficulty, there being three lines of reefs outside through which the vessel must be piloted. But once inside the tall cliffs that guard the entrance, and known as the Knysna Heads, a ship lies in a perfectly land-locked harbour. The sea passes up between the rocks, which are 160 yards apart. It is the centre of the Knysna timber trade, and is inhabited chiefly by an English population. Amongst other towns and villages of this district are Heidelberg (896), near Port Beaufort in the Swellendam division, Uniondale (894) in the division of Bredasdorp, Ladygrey (766) in the Robertson district, Pacaltsdorp in the neighbourhood of George, a Mission Station, where 620 Hottentots live on small allotments and hire themselves out as farm labourers, Ladysmith (596) lying west of the Oudtshoorn division, Blanco (460) in the George division, near which gold has been discovered, Greyton (432), and Stanford (995).

(10) In no part of the Colony is the primitive type of colonial life so well preserved as in these villages of the South-west Province, representing a kind of South African

Arcadia. They are generally laid out in the same way, planted in the same way, divided in the same way, into erven and allotments, with the share of water from the common water-furrow. The majority of the inhabitants being Dutch, the Dutch Reformed church is generally the most conspicuous building in the village. Often they boast of a town-hall, schools, both elementary and intermediate, reading-room, a bank, a drostdy or civil commissioner's office, and a tronk or prison. The dignitaries of the village are the clergymen, deacons, doctors, and magistrates, and the annals of the place are generally quiet and uneventful. In a certain sense there are no more peaceful and pleasant abodes than along the well-sheltered streets of a remote Dutch village. The well-to-do burghers and farmers of the district have a small house or cottage into which they throng from the country at certain times, especially on the occasion of the tri-monthly celebration of the *Nacht-Maal* or Lord's Supper. The predikants or pastors of the Dutch Reformed Church are strict in their discipline, and require all communicants to appear. The regulations of their Church are very faithfully obeyed by professing members. On such occasions the little town or village becomes for a day or two after the Sunday busy and animated. Huge ox-waggon's are drawn up in the public 'outspan' or square, the oxen and horses are turned out to feed on the adjoining commons, and the owners buy their market supplies for the next three months. Public auctions are held, meetings are advertised, and the storesman as well as the strolling packman, or German Jew, have a busy and profitable time. The banks advance money on mortgage, the client consults his local lawyer on some legal point, confirmations are held, marriages are celebrated, and the stoeps and verandahs of these villages are full for a time of a

busy gossiping crowd, gathered from almost incredible distances.

(11) The South-west Province is noted as being the first field of Moravian Missionary enterprise. Whether in the ice-bound regions of Baffin's Bay or in the deserts and hidden kloofs of South Africa, the zeal of the Moravian Mission Society has been equally fervent. At a place called Baviaan's Kloop, now known as Genadendal or the Vale of Grace, the first Moravian missionary, George Schmidt, began in 1737 to teach the Hottentots the principles of the Christian religion. He was the pioneer missionary of South Africa, and was known as 'The Apostle of the Hottentots.' But he incurred the jealousy of the ministers of the Dutch Reformed Church, and had to abandon Genadendal¹. In 1792, however, the work was again taken up by the Moravian ministers, and a church was built in 1796. The population of Genadendal is calculated to be more than 2,000, many hundreds of whom go out as labourers amongst the farmers and wine-growers. Amongst other mission stations are *Zuurbrak* (1,078), north of Heidelberg in the Swellendam district, managed by the London Mission, *Zoar* and *Amalienstein*, at the foot of Seven Weeks' Poort, managed by the Berlin Missionary Society. *Dysseldorp* (1,150) and *Elim* in Bredasdorp are also Hottentot mission stations.

(12) The South-west Province is, generally speaking, very mountainous, and consists chiefly of the tracts of land which rise gradually from the south coast to the line of the Zwartebergen, terrace beyond terrace. The line of mountains is generally from east to west, and they serve as barriers, therefore, to development northwards and help to keep this Arcadia in its primitive solitudes. The numerous Passes, constructed at great cost and trouble, prove the difficulty its inhabitants have

¹ Theal's 'Compendium of South African History,' p. 136.

had to contend with. Lowry's Pass, Cogman's Kloof, near Montagu, Tradouw's Pass, leading from Swellendam to Seven Weeks' Poort and the Zwartebergen, Garcia's Pass in Riversdale, Montagu Pass in George, leading to Meiring's Poort and the Great Karroo, are all very beautiful and picturesque defiles. It will be seen that there are no large karroos or plains in this province.

The Midland Province.

(13) This province, the limit of old Dutch rule, is nearly equal in extent to the North-west Province, and is chiefly a pastoral region. According to the census summaries of 1875, only 250,000 acres were cultivated in the 67,090 square miles that form the whole area¹. Its general features are broad and easy to understand. Once past the Zwartebergen, which cut it off from the South-west Province, the plateau of the Great Karroo is reached, which forms such a notable feature in South African geography. Further north the province is intersected by the line of the Nieuveltdt Mountains, and thence the interior plateaux stretch for hundreds of miles to the banks of the Orange River and the borders of Bechuanaland. Very different is this province from the picturesque, mountainous, and well-wooded regions of the South-west, and very different also from the snug and comfortable and populous division of the Western Province. Cultivated plots are rare, population is scattered, and a karroo village or dorp is totally unlike such a place as Georgetown or Worcester. On the north it approaches the great Kalahari Desert, and over most of it the sun holds fierce dominion. Where there is a mountain stream, or a favourable kloof, or a fountain, there a fertile spot arises, like an oasis, and a small farming community, and perhaps a village, will grow up. The chief wealth

¹ Appendix iii.

consists in large flocks of sheep. Nowhere in the Colony are there more extensive sheep-runs than in Beaufort West, and Victoria West and Fraserburg, for nowhere does the sweet karroo bush grow better. Many years ago these open regions were the pasturage ground for thousands of springbok and of the larger antelope which loved the plains rather than the mountains. In Fraserburg a part of the country is called the 'Trek-veldt,' because of the migratory habits of the farmers who live there.

(14) The chief town of this great district is Graaf Reinet, founded in 1745, and called after the Dutch Governor, Van de Graaf, and his wife, whose maiden name was Reinet. It is distant 450 miles from Capetown. Over the whole of this province Dutch authority was extended as early as 1778, when Governor van Plettenberg caused a beacon to be erected on the bank of the Zekoe River a few miles west of the village of Colesberg. This act of official annexation proves how widely the emigrant Boers had spread themselves eastwards and northwards over the great karroos, leaving, however, the wooded regions of the south coast comparatively unexplored. To the west of Graaf Reinet are the well-known Camdeboo Flats mentioned by Sparrman (1772-1776), a good grazing land for sheep. For a long time Graaf Reinet was not only the centre of a grazing district, but a starting-place and rendezvous for travellers, sportsmen and traders. In Sir John Barrow's time (1797-8) the farms were all loan-farms, and the graziers and Boer peasantry held everything at the pleasure of the Dutch Company's officials. At this time, also, Graaf Reinet formed the extreme eastern boundary of the Colony. The whole of the district, reckoned by Sir John Barrow to be 40,000 square miles, was peopled by only 700 families, who held upon an average fifty-seven

square miles of country, or six times the quantity regulated by Government¹. Barrow thought, moreover, that the outpost might have to be abandoned by the Dutch African peasantry, owing to the hostilities of the native races.

(15) Although the frontier has been far advanced, and Graaf Reinet has become the centre of an enormous tract of country, it numbered only 3,913 souls in 1891. It is prettily situated on the banks of the Sunday River, and in a bend of the Stormberg Mountains, and its natural position is much enhanced by the vineyards and orange-groves, planted near the houses.

This 'City of the Desert' occupies a central position in the Cape Colony. It is here that the colonists first came into contact with the Kaffir races of the eastern districts. It is here, too, that there is a kind of natural cleavage between East and West. The plants and herbs which flourish on the plains and hills sloping towards the Indian Ocean begin first to show themselves. In vain do we search here for the heaths and orchids found in such a variety in the Western Province and on the slopes of Table Mountain. The flora and fauna of the East are different from those of the West, and the line of demarcation comes about Brintjes Hoogte and the Zwarte Ruggens. The sea-port town of Graaf Reinet is Port Elizabeth, an eastern port, with which it is connected by rail, a distance of 184 miles. Although this Province has the widest plains, it can boast of the highest mountain-peak in the Cape Colony, viz. the *Compass Berg* (7,800), a peak of the *Great Sneeuwberg*.

(16) Beaufort West (2,725), founded in 1820, during the Governorship of Lord Charles Somerset, shows a more prosperous history. It lies due west from Graaf Reinet, and is 330 miles north-west of Capetown, with

¹ Barrow's 'Travels in Southern Africa,' vol. ii. p. 74.

which it is connected by rail. The chief public work of the town is the Beaufort Reservoir, which cost £12,000, and contains five hundred million gallons of water, thus enabling the inhabitants to irrigate an enormous extent of country. The water thus applied shows the wonderful fertility of the deep karroo soils. The nearest sea-port town is Mossel Bay, distant about 175 miles, but the railway, by passing through the town, has made Table Bay the best and most accessible harbour.

Prince Albert (1,592) lies close under the Great Zwarteberg, and is on the extreme south of this Province. The Western railway passes at a distance of twenty-eight miles from it, at Prince Albert road. It is 282 miles from Capetown and 300 from Port Elizabeth, almost exactly half way between these two chief ports. *Richmond* (1,930) lies far to the north-east of this Province, and is situated on the highest plateau of the Colony, behind the Sneeubergen or snow mountains. Snow falls occasionally in the streets of Richmond in winter time. This is an extremely healthy district, and the fluke which has proved so fatal to the flocks elsewhere in South Africa is unknown here. Water is scarce, but a great deal can yet be done in the neighbourhood of Richmond by careful irrigation. *Aberdeen* (1,255) lies to the south of Graaf Reinet, and is connected with the Midland Railway at Aberdeen Road. It much resembles Graaf Reinet, and is a karroo town. *Murraysburg* (1,045) is in the same neighbourhood, and is built at an elevation of 5,000 feet, and has, therefore, a bracing climate.

(17) Other towns and villages in this province are *Victoria West* (1,200), *Carnarvon* (925), *Britstown* (694), established in 1877 in the division of Richmond, *Fraserburg* (574), *Hopetown* (747), at the extreme north of the province, on the main line to Kimberley, *Willowmore* (801), on the extreme south and lying to the east of

Prince Albert, *Sutherland* (410), in the Fraserburg district, distant sixty miles from Matjesfontein on the Western Railway, *Prieska* (483), on the banks of the Orange River, where schemes are on foot for utilising by irrigation the waters of this river, and *Kenhardt* (364), in the Carnarvon district, and the centre of 300 farms, which are leased by farmers from Government. Much of the country along the northern border, between Hopetown and Pella, is occupied by farmers and graziers who lead a wandering and nomadic life in tents and wag-gons, possessing large flocks of sheep. *De Aar* is an important railway junction south of Hopetown, and 510 miles from Capetown, 388 miles from Port Elizabeth, and 130 from Kimberley. Here the Midland line, after passing through Naauw Poort junction in the Colesberg district, takes a north-westerly direction and meets the main line from Capetown and the western districts. Most of the population here are engaged on the railway works, and here, in 1887, the late Lord Carnarvon laid the foundation-stone of Carnarvon Hall.



CHAPTER VII.

The South-eastern, the North-eastern, the Eastern Provinces.

The Diamond Fields or Griqualand West.

(1) *The South-eastern Province.*—In 1814 Sir John Cradock, who had compelled the Kaffirs to retire behind the Kat and Great Fish Rivers, gave the name of Albany to the district north of Algoa Bay, after the

Duke of York and Albany. The Dutch pioneers and voortrekkers had reached this eastern part of the Colony either by way of the Karroo and Graaf Reinet or along the southern part of the vast district of Swellendam, through the Lang Kloof or Long Pass. The name of Zuureveldt was applied generally to this part of South Africa, according to the ancient maps of the eastern settlement. Part of the country along the coast to the west of Algoa Bay was termed 'The Lower Bosjesman's district,' and near the site of Port Elizabeth, to the east of Sunday River, historical evidences remained of the presence and inroads of the Kaffirs. There was Doornrug, the former kraal or residence of the Kaffir chief Slambie, also, Jacobus Oosthuysen's Farm, remarkable for the gallant defence made there against the Kaffirs by Lieutenant Everitt, R.A., and, still nearer the Sunday River, the kraal of the Kaffir chief Kuaga. In the range of the Zuurberg itself, to the north of Algoa Bay, near the sources of the Coerney River, was the historic Doorn Nek, where in a lonely pass Commandant Stockenstrom had been murdered by the Kaffirs. Not far off was Scheeper Farm, formerly the residence of the Kaffir chief Habana. At Witte Riviere, close by, the energetic Moravian missionaries had established an outpost amongst the Kaffirs, as they had already set one up amongst the Hottentots in the Western Province, and Uitenhage itself was already a Dutch settlement¹. In this district was destined to be planted a colony of British emigrants, who, by their courage and enterprise, revolutionised the history of the Cape Colony.

(2) It is difficult to imagine what South Africa would have been without the settlers of 1820. Something, perhaps, like Canada might have been without the immigration of the United Empire Loyalists or the colonists of the

¹ See Map of the District of Albany and Bathurst, 1819.

Ontario Province. It is futile to conjecture these lacunae or empty places in the history of any colony, but in South Africa it is certain that, had it not been for the steadfast character of the 1820 settlers, the Kaffirs would have proved more difficult foes to subdue, the settlement of the frontier a more arduous task, and the prosperity of the whole country indefinitely postponed. By their presence the settlers were a pledge of British interference and official attention. Algoa Bay was the place at which the first emigrants landed in South Africa; a spot almost as famous in its way as New Plymouth on the shores of North America.

Algoa Bay, called by the Portuguese *Baya de la Goa*,—not to be confused with Delagoa Bay further north,—was first visited by the Dutch in 1669. Here the ‘Noord,’ a Dutch vessel, put in and was wrecked in 1690 off Cape Recife. In 1752 the Company’s marks were erected at the mouth of the Zwartkops River, but just then the occupation could have meant little or nothing, as, in 1772, some leases of farms taken on that river were cancelled as being beyond the boundary fixed for the Swellendam district. However, these farms were re-occupied when the Bushman’s River was declared the boundary between the district of Swellendam and Stellenbosch, and the Eastern frontier was thrust forwards to the Fish River, and the magistracy of Graaf Reinet was established¹. It was stated that the chief object of this magistracy was ‘to prevent any power from settling at the Bay de la Goa.’ The policy of the Company was to warn off English ships from the coast and prevent any plan of permanent colonisation which would endanger the great trade-route from the East. At this time the neighbourhood of Algoa Bay did not seem to be particularly favourable for settlement, the pastures having

¹ Chase’s ‘History of the Eastern Province,’ p. 58.

the reputation of being rank and sour, and therefore unfit for sheep and cattle. The hills and plains absolutely swarmed with every kind of wild animal, and the Kaffirs constituted an ever-present menace. The settlement would be isolated* whoever occupied it, the distance from Capetown being 500 miles, and the intervening space being difficult to travel. The best way to approach it was by the sea; but the coast of South Africa, as already pointed out, was unknown, treacherous and harbourless. It was in face of most difficult and untoward circumstances that the beginnings of the South African settlement were made.

(3) From the point of view of a political experiment in colonisation the story of the 1820 settlers at the Cape is one of the most interesting and instructive in the annals of English history. The general policy of bringing out State-aided settlers had been advocated in 1809 by Colonel Collins, who said that the best guarantee for the progress of the Colony lay in filling up the frontier with British immigrants. After Waterloo there was deep distress in England, and systematic emigration was counselled as a means of relief. In 1819 the English Government voted a sum of £50,000 in aid of emigration, and the number of those who wished to go abroad and face the trials of an African frontier life reached the large total of 90,000. Of these, 4,000 were chosen and despatched in twenty-three ships. This is one of the most remarkable emigrations from these shores, and is a striking proof of the value, occasionally, of State-aided emigration. The area occupied at first extended over 3,000 miles, but the descendants of the settlers soon overflowed this area. The 'Chapman' and 'Nautilus' left Gravesend on the 3rd of December, 1819, and dropped anchor in the Bay on April 9th, 1820. 'The landing was dangerous and effected by means of surf-boats, and

all those who have landed in an African bay in a surf-boat will appreciate what this operation means. But there was one circumstance which gladdened the hearts of the new arrivals. Many of them were Scots, and on the shore they could see an old fort and the tents and buildings belonging to a division of the 72nd Highlanders. Of course the Highlanders came down to meet the colonists and help them; and Pringle says in his narrative, 'Approaching the Highland soldiers I spoke to them in broad Scotch, and entreated them to be careful of their country folk. "Scotch folk?" said a weather-beaten corporal with a strong northern brogue—"never fear, sir, but we sal be careful o' them." And dashing through the water as he spoke, he and his comrades hauled the boats rapidly, yet cautiously, through the breakers; and then surrounding the party and shaking them cordially by the hands, they carried them, old and young, ashore on their shoulders, without allowng one of them to wet the sole of his shoe in the spray.' This feeling of clanship, thus displayed on the shores of South Africa, very much resembles that shown by the Selkirk settlers in Canada on the occasion of the first planting of Scotch settlements on Prince Edward Island and also in Manitoba. Within two months of their arrival the settlers were visited by the acting Governor, Sir Rufane Shaw Donkin, and witnessed the laying of the foundation-stone of the first house of the new town, called Port Elizabeth, after Lady Elizabeth Donkin, of whom the record on the pyramid, erected on the hill in her honour, says that she was one of the most perfect of women. The chief trial of the young colony was the frontier difficulty with the Kaffirs. At one time the settlement seemed hardly likely to survive, and in a public address, presented by the colonists to the Colonial Secretary, it was stated that 3,227 persons had been reduced to

destitution, 239 farm houses destroyed by fire, 262 pillaged of all their furniture and property, 30,140 head of cattle, 964 horses, and 55,554 sheep and goats were stolen¹.

(4) Port Elizabeth (23,852) has long won its way to be the chief town of this Province, and has been termed the Liverpool of South Africa. It cannot boast of the same natural advantages as Capetown, but the spirit and energy of its inhabitants have done much to make it a busy centre of trade and a pleasant place to live in. As has been already pointed out, great sums of money have been spent in vain to run a breakwater out and secure a good landing-place and docks. For many years past Algoa Bay has been the nearest port for a large and increasing back country. It has been noted for its wool and ostrich feather market. The huge and lumbering ox waggons, with their long spans of sixteen to twenty oxen, brought the produce of the interior to the marts of Port Elizabeth, long before the days of extended railways, and made the town a prosperous and picturesque centre of eastern commerce. It is nearer Kimberley and the Gold Fields than Capetown. It is connected with the country beyond by three railways: (1) The Midland, which has its terminus at Graaf Reinet in the Midland Circle, distant about 200 miles; (2) The North Eastern, which passes through Cradock and Colesberg; (3) The Western, by means of a branch line leading from Naauw Poort to De Aar. Viewed from the sea, Port Elizabeth presents the sight of a long and rather straggling town with main streets running parallel with the sea-coast, different in this respect from Capetown, where the main streets run at right-angles to Table Bay. Instead of the magnificent background of Table Mountain, which the metropolis boasts, Port Elizabeth has only a somewhat low hill rising from an open roadstead, and far to the northwards,

¹ Greswell's 'Our South African Empire,' 1885, vol. i. p. 78.

over a low bushy country, the ranges of the Zuurberg can be discerned, the heights of which afford in summer-time to the dwellers of 'The Bay' an agreeable and romantic sanatorium.

(5) To the north-east of Port Elizabeth lies Grahams-town, at a distance of 100 miles, in many respects the most beautiful of all South African towns. It lies along a series of parallel and undulating ridges, at a height of 1,750 feet, and is well laid out with broad and spacious streets. It soon became after its foundation a military head-quarters and emporium of the eastern frontier districts, and was connected with the Tarka district by a military road called the Queen's Road. This road crossed a stony ridge called Governor's kop or head, at a distance of about eight miles, and then entered the jungle of the Fish River, and from that point was connected with Fort Beaufort, a military port in the beginning, and constituting one of the bulwarks of the frontier. At first Bathurst was the seat of magistracy, but Grahamstown subsequently supplanted it by the order of Lord Charles Somerset. Grahamstown, in its early days, shared the perils of the frontier. In 1834, on the occasion of a Kaffir rising, when the homesteads, herds and savings of more than fifteen years were destroyed by the Kaffirs, Grahamstown was in great danger, and the church was set apart as an asylum for women and children and as a magazine for gunpowder and firearms¹. When the Kaffir war-scares subsided this city of the Albany settlers grew and prospered, the surrounding districts being well adapted to sheep and cattle. The Albany farmers have always been especially distinguished for their enterprising spirit, and one of their number, Mr. Douglass, was the first to develop, by means of artificial incubators, the lucrative ostrich trade. Grahamstown has been termed the

¹ Wilmot's 'History of the Cape Colony.'

‘Winchester’ of South Africa, and is noted for its schools, gardens, public buildings and prosperous appearance. It is not unlike an English Cathedral town, and the English Cathedral itself is a structure built mainly from the design of Sir George Gilbert Scott. Grahamstown is connected with the sea at Port Alfred (1,081) at the mouth of the Kowie River, a distance of thirty miles. There is probably no town in the whole wide extent of the British Colonies where an Englishman would feel more at home than in Grahamstown. The climate is delicious, and the town is within easy access of some of the most interesting spots in the world for the botanist and lover of nature. The neighbourhood is classical and replete with some of the most romantic and stirring episodes of frontier life. Capetown and the West have nothing similar to show, and here, along the Kaffir frontiers and in the scenes of savage border forays, it is felt that South African history was really made and fashioned. Compared with the West the annals of the East are, to an Englishman, far more picturesque and stirring—for here men of his own blood fought and strove as few men have in the annals of colonization.

(6) *Uitenhage*, with a population of 5,297, is the centre of a fertile country to the west of Port Elizabeth, and is situated along the upper reaches of the Zwartkops River. The division of Uitenhage was originally formed (1804) out of Stellenbosch district by the Dutch, and owes its name to the Barony of the Batavian Commissary de Mist, who was sent out to South Africa during the brief interval that elapsed between the first and second occupations of the English. To the Dutch the teaching of the first British occupation was that they had neglected their opportunities in South Africa, that their general methods of governing were inadequate, and their control of the interior at certain points very faulty and

defective. Graaf Reinet was too far removed from the coast to check hostile approaches, and Uitenhage, it was then thought, would become a centre from which both sections of the Colony, east and west, might be governed. For many years Uitenhage was recommended as the seat of the supreme Government¹, but the expansion of the Colony has been northwards and eastwards, so Uitenhage has remained a quiet pastoral town, noted simply for its wool-washing establishments, giving employment to 2,000 people, for its noble scenery and plentiful supply of water, that priceless commodity in South Africa. The country to the north is called the Zwarte Ruggens or Black Ridges, a more desolate tract, over which the prickly pear and euphorbia grow in abundance.

(7) Amongst other towns and villages are *Hankey* (639), formerly a station of the London Missionary Society, built on the banks of the Gamtoos River, distant forty miles from Port Elizabeth; *Alexandria* (381), in the neighbourhood of which are two large forests, one extending from the mouth of the Bushman's River to the Sunday River, a distance of fifty miles, the other in the Zuurberg Mountains, both of them famed in times past for their herds of big game; *Humansdorp* (554), lying between the Gamtoos and Kromme Rivers, about forty miles west of Uitenhage; *Peddie* (452), to the east of Grahamstown, and cultivated very largely by the native tribes, who are very numerous here; *Jansenville* (539), to the north of the Winterberg Mountains, and verging upon the karroo district and the great plains of the interior.

(8) *Mission Stations.* As we approach Kaffirland the mission station is a conspicuous feature of the country,

¹ Chase's 'History of the Eastern Province,' p. 56.

and the most important mission station in this Province is Lovedale, forming part of the Municipality of Alice. It is the Institute of the Free Church Missionary Society, and has been presided over by Dr. Stewart for more than twenty-three years. It was founded in 1850 by the Rev. William Govan, and had only thirteen scholars at first. In 1868 a girls' school was added under two divisions, educational and industrial, and in 1880 there were 512 names on the roll. Altogether, in the annals of Lovedale there is a record of 2,500 names. Sixteen missionaries to native congregations, 412 native teachers, male and female, forty-nine interpreters to magistrates and 313 engaged in various trades, 272 native agriculturists farming their own land, are the net results of a Lovedale training. Lovedale is built on a gentle incline sloping down towards the never-failing waters of the Chumie River. 'There are twenty-three buildings connected with the Institution, supplying every purpose, from carpenters' shops to lecture halls. Near the summit of the hill is the new stone building, erected at a cost of £12,000, for class-rooms. To the east of it, and further down, stand the boarding hall and dormitories for boys and workshops for the industrial training department; while occupying a similar position on the west, and at some distance from the boys' quarters, stands the girls' school. Between the two is the residence of the Principal. Such are the surroundings among which may be found students of all colours, from the fair-skinned Saxon to the darkest tribe of Central or Southern Africa. Here are intermingled Kaffirs, Fingoes, Pondos, Hottentots, Bechuanas, Basutos, Zulus, Dutch and English, and a few from the Shiré and Zambesi Rivers. They sit side by side in the class-rooms, take their meals in the same hall, though at different tables, whilst the Europeans have apartments to themselves, and the different tribes of natives are

separated in their dormitories as far as possible¹. Dr. Stewart first went out to South Africa to see whether a mission establishment could be established in the region of Lake Nyassa, and spent two years in that part of the country with Dr. Livingstone. Returning to Scotland, he remained there thirteen years, until the death of Livingstone, and then returned to Africa. The Lovedale Institution is supported by men of broad minds and generous impulses, and is a great and important civilising agency in this part of Africa. There is a branch establishment at Blythswood in the Transkei, at a distance of 120 miles from Lovedale, built at a cost of £6,000, of which no less than £4,500 was subscribed by the natives themselves. Other mission stations are the Moravian Station *Enon*, situated in a densely wooded country at the foot of the Zuurberg; *Kruis fontein*, near Humansdorp, a station of the London Missionary Society; *Bethelsdorp*, on the Zwartkops River, near Port Elizabeth.

North-eastern Province.

(9) In this Province the population, according to the last census, was, Europeans 42,894, native 54,503, and the ground under cultivation comparatively little. The most picturesque town of this division is Somerset East, with an estimated population of 2,888². It lies on a somewhat flat plain not far from the Fish River, and close under the Boschberg Mountains, which rise up behind it to a height of 2000–3000 feet. Many years ago it was the site of a Government farm, on which forage was grown for horses. The Kaffirs in those days were close and dangerous neighbours. Near the little town, and in the direction of the Fish River, is Glen

¹ 'Cape Times,' Weekly Edition, Jan. 8, 1890. Report of S. N. Haskell.

² Report of the Director of the Census, 1891.

Avon, a most romantic and fertile retreat, the home once of a very old pioneer. The chief building in the town is Gill College, endowed by an eccentric Scotchman, Dr. Gill, who left nearly £30,000 for this object. The buildings were erected at a cost of £6,000, raised by public subscription. The Institution boasts of a library and herbarium. It was the desire of the founder that the College should follow as closely as possible upon the lines of the Glasgow University, and ample provision was made for the stipends of three lecturers or professors.

(10) *Cradock* (4,757), which lies further north, is celebrated for its dry and bracing atmosphere, and is a great health resort. Its chief public building is a large church (Dutch Reformed), built at a cost of £20,000. The district round here is very favourable for the Angora goat, large flocks of which can often be seen amongst the mimosa, forming with their beautifully white fleeces most conspicuous features in the landscape. In 1889 there were no fewer than 526,166, twice as many as in any other district¹. In such places as Zwager's Hoek there are very good mountain farms, well-watered and fertile, and elsewhere in the district large tracts of veldt are very favourable for sheep and ostrich farming. In the days of the well-known Gordon Cumming the vast plains here, and especially in the vicinity of Colesberg, used to be covered with antelope of every description. Other villages in this Province are Fort Beaufort (1,007), Colesberg (1,830), Burghersdorp (1,229), Bedford (1,157), Tarkastad (1,203), Hanover (1,128), Adelaide (1,200), Venterstad (728), Pears-ton (461), Seymour (596). The Stockenstrom district is small and well-watered, and contains what is known as 'The Kat River Settlement' of Hottentots. These Hottentots thrive and are good agriculturists. They have amongst their number many voters who know how

¹ 'Statistical Register,' p. 306.

to use their electoral privileges. In this division a candidate is required to canvass and gain the 'Kat River' vote if he wishes to insure success. In its way it is as important as the 'Malay vote' at Capetown.

The Eastern Province.

(11) The characteristic of this Province is its enormous native population. The natives outnumber the Europeans by ten or twelve to one. To some extent, as already shown, they enjoy electoral power. As might be expected, military forts and settlements are found in this division. King William's Town (7,193) is the military headquarters of the Cape Mounted Rifles. Stutterheim (444), Frankfort (907), Braunschweig (1,618), Breidbach (736), Hanover (1,128), Potsdam, and Berlin are German military villages, which were colonised by the 'German Legion,' a body of men who have succeeded in a remarkable degree as colonists, and have added much to the prosperity of the eastern border¹.

The Eastern Circle is connected with the sea by the port of East London (6,858) at the mouth of the Buffalo River. In spite of great efforts made by the colonists under the direction of Sir John Coode, the bar is still dangerous. It is hoped that in time these natural difficulties may be overcome, and a convenient outlet gained for a fertile country.

(12) In this circle a very interesting tract of country is the Herschel division. Its area is about 800 square miles, and its population is about 22,000², consisting almost entirely of Kaffir clans, of the Fingoes, Tambookies, and Basutos. This tract is the best cultivated in the whole colony, one quarter of the entire surface being under cultivation. Millet and maize are the

¹ Appendix IV.

² 'Blue Book on Native Affairs,' 1889.

chief products, and thousands of bags of grain are sold annually in the colony and the Orange Free State. Very few police are required to keep this district in order. In 1880 there were only four native constables in it. There are no large towns or villages containing European inhabitants, only a sprinkling of traders and storekeepers, 230 in all. As an example of what may be done by the natives, left almost entirely to themselves, but with the light reins only of European jurisdiction held over them, Herschel is extremely interesting.

(13) The Eastern Circle is especially favoured by the possession of extensive coal-fields. In the division of Wodehouse the deposits of the Stormberg mountains are said to be practically inexhaustible, although the coal is of a somewhat inferior quality. In course of time these fields will in all probability be brought into direct communication with the entire railway system of the Cape Colony. Development will naturally follow the line of the coal-fields, which follows, generally speaking, the Drakenburg range to Natal. The best and most fertile part of South-east Africa will thus be tapped, and a land communication be created between the Cape Colony and Natal.

(14) Other important places and villages are Queens-town (4,057), Keiskama Hoek (1,147), Cathcart (599), Sterkstroom (484), in the division of Queenstown; Dordrecht (989), Tennyson (152), Lady Frere (260), Barkly East (876), now separated from the old division of Wodehouse; Aliwal North (2,056), Lady Grey (701), in the division of Aliwal North.

Keiskama Hoek is well known in the Colony and in England as the seat of St. Matthew's Mission Station, an S. P. G. Missionary and Industrial Institution, and a centre that is considered as ranking second to the Wesleyan Station of Lovedale in efficiency. The country itself is most picturesque and romantic, and the scenery

of the Booma Pass, down which the Keiskama winds its way, makes a great impression upon the traveller. The Station has been working for more than thirty years, and the tract of country over which its immediate influence is felt is about fifty by twenty ffiles in extent ¹. There are about 10,000 or 12,000 natives and 500 or 600 Europeans, chiefly Germans, in the neighbourhood. The natives live in kraals or villages, but, as their mode of living involves the keeping of a number of cattle, sheep, and goats, by almost every family, they seldom congregate in large numbers in any one place, but spread themselves out over the whole country, so as to be able to command pasturage for their flocks and herds. The actual Mission Station of St. Matthew's is nothing more than a number of buildings erected on a piece of land which is the property of the Church, and having the appearance of a small English village, comprising church, parsonage, schools, teachers' residences, boarding establishments, and workshops, occupied solely by those directly employed in the various branches of work carried on in the institution. The work of the Mission has to be carried on by constant journeys on horseback to distant outposts. The church was built in 1876-77 at a cost of £1766, and other buildings have cost more than £7000. Importance is given in this Station to the extreme value of Industrial work, and the results have been from time to time very satisfactory, the yearly value of the work realising several thousands of pounds.

Griqualand West.

(15) Griqualand West and the Diamond Fields, the 'Golconda' of the Cape, called sometimes Adamantia, has a peculiar history of its own. From November 1871 to October 1881 it was governed by a separate

¹ 'Account of Keiskama Mission,' Lovedale Press, p. 7.

Administrator. Now it is incorporated with the Cape Colony, and is represented in the Council and Assembly. Twenty-five years ago the whole site of the flourishing town of Kimberley could have been purchased for a few yoke of oxen. More than a century ago it was suspected that diamonds could be found along the Vaal River, and in an old map of the district, printed in 1730, the presence of diamonds was indicated, but the tradition was believed to be mythical. The Boer farmers often noticed the sparkling stones, in their language the 'mooi klippe,' along the Vaal River. It is said that the discovery of these diamond mines was accidental. In 1867 a Dutch farmer, named Schalk van Niekerk, was calling at the house of a friend, and seeing the children playing with a pretty stone, expressed his admiration of it, and was at once presented with it by the mistress of the house. A trader, named John O'Reilly, happened to be present, and suspecting that the stone might be more valuable than a mere crystal, obtained possession of it and showed it to two experts, Dr. Atherstone of Grahams-town and Mr. Herité the French Consul at Capetown. The stone was pronounced by them to be a diamond, and it was sold to the Governor, Sir Philip Wodehouse, for £500. The colonists hardly knew what to make of the announcement, and suspecting that these discoveries were frauds promulgated to raise the value of land in those districts, did not flock to the fields at first. But diamonds continued to be found, and in March, 1869, the second year after O'Reilly's discovery, the famous Star of South Africa, now in the possession of the Countess of Dudley, was obtained from a Kaffir sorcerer who had used it as one of his ornaments. This stone weighed uncut eighty-three carats, and was sold for £11,000.

(16) It was some time before the diggers could discover where the diamonds could best be found. Here

and there along the banks of the river and under bushes and behind stones discoveries were made, and these 'wet' diggings were situated on both sides of the Vaal, from the junction of the Vaal and the Hart's Rivers to above Hebron on the Vaal, about seventy miles along the winding river. Diamonds weighing 288, 148½, 147½ carats have been got from these river diggings. But it was three years after the river diamonds were discovered that the rich 'stuff' was brought to light at Dutoitspan, thirty-five miles to the south, and also at Bultfontein. In 1871, two miles to the north-west from Dutoitspan, De Beer's, or the Old Rush, and De Beer's New Rush or Colesberg Kopje, now Kimberley, were discovered. These valuable dry diggings lie within a limited circuit of three-and-a-half miles' diameter. 'Kimberley mine is elliptical, and about eleven acres in extent, with good but locally unequal produce. The Kimberley Central Diamond Mining Company have the largest holdings. De Beer's, of an irregular oblique oval shape, and extending over fifteen acres, gives good produce. This farm, also known as Vooruitzicht, was sold at first for £6000 and ultimately for £100,000. Bultfontein mine is a circular mine about 360 yards across; Dutoit's, crescent-shaped at the top, is thirty acres in extent, but is not very reliable. The Kimberley mine and De Beer's are one mile apart, Bultfontein's and Dutoit's less than a quarter of a mile apart. Between the two pairs of mines there is said to be some underground connexion. Jager's fontein, eighty miles from Kimberley, has a rather uncertain yield of about £50,000 annually, but very fine and good diamonds have been procured here¹.'

(17) At first the work was easy, of simply turning up the loose soil, and turning it over and searching it. In their ignorance or their greed the miners attacked the

¹ 'Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute,' vol. xviii. p. 232.

walls or 'the reefs' of these craters, and, as they dug deeper and deeper, destroyed the chief security of the mines. At present they resemble quarries about 100 to 200 yards across and 300 to 400 feet deep. The greatest danger a mine is exposed to is from the fall of reef. When the miners came to 'the blue,' as the stiff soil was called, their task was harder. Every morsel had to be carried to the top and sifted. The mountains of dust and rubbish testify to the enormous labour that has been expended on this task, and the dust of the diamond mines has become a proverb, and is deleterious to weak lungs. To give an idea of the extent of the excavations, it has been calculated that the huge cavity of the Kimberley mine measures about 9,000,000 cubic yards, of which about half represents the reef hauled out, and the other half diamondiferous ground known as yellow or blue. The yield of diamonds since 1871 to the end of 1885 has probably exceeded $17\frac{1}{2}$ million carats, equal to $3\frac{1}{2}$ tons weight of precious stones, in value about £20,000,000, whilst the total weight of reef and ground excavated exceeded 20,000,000 tons¹. To these figures of course considerable additions must be made.

(18) Unfortunately a dispute arose about the possession of the land between the British Government and the Orange Free State. A native chief called Waterboer claimed the site of the mines, but the Free State put forward (1) that the sovereignty had belonged to themselves for fifteen years, (2) and that the mines had been opened under a Free State magistrate, (3) and that British annexation was in direct violation of the Convention of 1854, by which the British had limited their jurisdiction northwards of the Orange River. The chief Waterboer placed himself under British protection, and the greater part of the mining population required and

¹ 'Argus Annual,' 1890, p. 486.

demanding the strong arm of British protection. The fact was that the Government of the Free State, a community of about 30,000 or 40,000 at that time, was hardly able to cope with the Diamond mines difficulty. In October, 1871, the country was proclaimed British territory under the name of *Griqualand West*. A compromise was arrived at between President Brand of the Free State and Lord Carnarvon in 1876. The British Government agreed to pay down £90,000 in full settlement of all claims, and a further £15,000 was advanced for railway construction in the Free State. The Free Staters, although they have often made a great deal out of a technical grievance, have, in reality, gained by the assumption of British rule, and partaken largely of the substantial benefits accruing to them from their proximity to the Diamond Fields. Many of the Boers have been lucky finders and lucky speculators in a place where they could hardly have been successful administrators, and the trade of the whole busy hive of men has been to a great extent in their hands.

(19) The mere cost of transport of material to Kimberley (28,643) has been enormous. As the town has risen up in a desert 640 miles from Table Bay and 440 miles from Port Elizabeth, food, fuel, machinery, and building materials of every description have had to be conveyed there by means of rail and ox-waggon at an average cost of £20 per ton. The price of vegetables and fresh meat has often risen to the scale which prevails in a town during a siege or famine, and the Boer farmer of the neighbourhood has been able to command a wonderful market for his produce. Now the railway is completed there is less need of the kurveyor or carrier, but the daily necessities of nearly 50,000 people in this wonderful desert town afford a profitable market to the neighbouring agriculturists. Fuel often has fetched

enormous prices, and a few waggons of wood have been to the Boer almost in the place of a 'lucky find.' Some five years ago there were, according to the Hon. J. X. Merriman¹, about 1,200 Europeans and 8,500 natives employed on the diamond mines, the weekly wage averaging £5 a week to Europeans and 25s. to natives with board and lodging. The total amount paid away in wages was calculated at nearly one million a year. This rate is probably maintained up to the present moment, and as the Kaffirs are paid in cash they become very profitable purchasers. The output of diamonds in 1887 was worth £4,251,000, and in 1888 £3,608,000. Before the discovery of the Kimberley mines diamonds were chiefly imported from Brazil at the rate of £50,000 per annum.

(20) The diamond fields of South Africa are not only excessively valuable as a mining centre, but also as an entrepôt of commerce. The district of Griqualand West lies in the highway of natural development towards Central South Africa. Even supposing that the fields are left as a useless mass of rubbish, with the natural wealth exhausted, one great result will remain in the railway. *Had it not been for the lucky finds of 1867-70, this part of South Africa might still have remained in its ancient solitudes. As it is, Kimberley has not only come to the aid of the old colonies, but it has encouraged exploration, trade, and enterprise to the country of the Bechuanas and the valleys of the Zambesi. Moreover, Kimberley has taught the thousands of Kaffirs who have thronged there from every part of South-east Africa the meaning and the value of labour. It has brought savages into direct contact with a civilised community, and taught them also the meaning of law and order. Sometimes it has taught them worse things and introduced them to worse vices even than their own, but there have been

¹ 'Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute,' vol. xvi.

numberless cases where such natives as the Fingoes and Basutos have been enabled to amass money and invest it, either in small holdings, or ploughs and agricultural instruments, or in the better conveniences of life. If the native has abused the opportunities which the diamond fields have certainly put in his way, it has often been the fault of his white master, who has either encouraged him openly in vicious ways, or, through mistaken kindness, kept too loose a hold over him.

(21) But it is impossible to think of Kimberley apart from the general question of South African progress. This strange Eldorado, springing up by magic, as it were, in a decade, has proved the fortune, and, it may be added, the ruin of many. As a rule, it is not the original searchers, but the business and commercial class, who have won. Kimberley began in the spirit of gambling and excitement, but may end as a sober and serious centre of European development. It has passed through several stages. First of all, there was the wild excitement of a 'rush,' when men, adventurers from every part of the world, shouldered their spades and pick-axes, and in many cases trudged on foot for hundreds of miles on their errand. But the days of the individual digger were soon over. Companies sprang up, and shares were issued to the public. During this second period of companies a vast deal of wild speculation went on, which, when the bubbles burst, crippled a great many and left them in the unsatisfactory position of holders of worthless scrip.

Then the companies were weeded out and the best survived. The industry has assumed a settled phase and the fluctuations in the market have subsided. The last development has been the amalgamation of the various companies and the centralisation of the industry in the hands of capitalists. It must be remembered

that the town of Kimberley, with its estimated population of 28,643, is associated with Beaconsfield with 10,478, with Wesselson, 967, and Warrenton, 880.

(22) Other towns in Griqualand West are Barkly West (1,037), the oldest town in the electoral circle, and at one time the centre of business there. In 1870 a digger population of 15,000 flocked thither and worked two well-known diggings, one on the north side of the Vaal River and the other on the south. Daniel's Kuil (386), Hebron (790), Griquatown (401), Douglas (264), and Campbell (207), are also villages in this electoral circle.

(23) The following is a list of some of the municipal towns and centres with an estimated population exceeding 1,000 inhabitants:—

Province I (W.).	
Capetown	51,083
Woodstock	4,973
Mowbray and Rondebosch	6,486
Newlands and Claremont	6,237
Wynberg and Durbanville	5,431
Simonstown and Kalk Bay	5,030
Green Point	2,923
	<hr/> 82,163
Paarl	7,663
Stellenbosch	5,931
Wellington	2,725
Somerset West	2,467
	<hr/> 100,949

Province II (N.W.).	
O'okiep (with copper mines)	13,789
Worcester	5,571
Malmesbury	3,961
Ceres	2,259
Mamre	1,273
	<hr/> 26,853

Province III (S.W.).	
Oudtshoorn	5,377
Swellendam	1,725
George	3,666
Robertson	2,044
Mossel Bay	2,064
Riversdale	1,799
Knysna	1,278
Caledon	2,076
Montagu	1,296
	<hr/> 21,325

Province IV (Midland).	
Graaf Reinet	5,913
Beaufort West	2,725
Prince Albert	1,592
Aberdeen	1,255
Richmond	1,930
	<hr/> 13,415

Province V (S.E.).		Province VII (E.).	
Port Elizabeth	23,052	East London	6,858
Grahamstown	10,436	King Williamstown . .	7,193
Uitenhage	5,297	Queenstown	4,057
Hankey (with Humans-		Keiskama Hoek	1,147
dorp)	1,193	Aliwal North	2,056
	<u>39,978</u>		<u>21,311</u>
Province VI (N.E.).		Province VIII (Griqualand West).	
Cradock	4,757	Kimberley	28,643
Somerset East	2,888	Beaconsfield	10,478
Fort Beaufort	1,007	Warrenton	880
Colesberg	1,830		<u>40,001</u>
Burghersdorp	1,279		
Bedford	1,157		
	<u>12,918</u>		

(24) With regard to the question of the distribution of the urban and rural population throughout the Colony in the various provinces, it will be gathered from the above statistics that there are at least forty-eight towns with more than 1,000 souls, and that this aggregate urban population is 276,750, as contrasted with the estimated total of 1,525,739 Europeans and natives. Upon closer examination, it will be seen that, out of this number, Capetown and her suburbs contribute 82,163; the great diamond mining centre Kimberley, with Beaconsfield and Warrenton, 40,156; Port Elizabeth, the Liverpool of the Cape, 23,052; Grahamstown, the city of the settlers, 10,436; the Namaqua Cape copper mining centre, 13,789—all of which, when added together, will make up more than half of the whole urban population as distributed amongst five chief centres. Within the last few years, as the Cape Colony and, generally speaking, South Africa, have developed diamond and gold and copper mines, there has been a natural concentration of the working population, both black and white, in certain localities. In former times the population, being chiefly

pastoral and rural, used to 'trek' or wander away far from centres of government to distant localities near fontains or rivers, or along the mountain valleys, where game was plentiful and water could be procured for irrigation. In the Dutch régime the Boer population wandered forth into the desert to escape hard laws and rigorous placats, and developed an isolated and patriarchal life. Sometimes whole clans can even now be found occupying a river valley with a little dorp or village not far off. For the early emigrant Boers there was no fear of Kaffir hordes along the western and midland district, as these savages were not encountered till the eastern parts of the Colony, especially round Port Elizabeth and Grahamstown, were reached. Before the invasion, therefore, of the country by the miners, the population of the Cape Colony, being almost entirely pastoral and agricultural, was distributed widely over the whole surface of the country. Now it would appear that the conditions of the country are more nearly approaching those of Australia, probably from the same causes in the first instance.

(25) It should be remarked that the distribution of the Kaffirs in locations next to towns and villages, where they form a community of themselves subject to 'location' rules, or in the more thoroughly native districts in the Transkei territories, is a feature peculiar to South African society. There is no parallel found for this state of things, either in the Dominion of Canada, or in New Zealand, or in Australia. Along certain reserves the Kaffirs average more than fifteen persons to the square mile. Their actual and relative increase has already been noticed as one of the political facts of the country.

(26) The geographical nomenclature of a country is always interesting to the student, as the names of rivers,

forests, mountains, and towns recall certain past epochs and well-known stages of settlement. As the various strata of geology throw light upon the history of the earth and suggest the periods in which its outer crust was formed, so the extant nomenclature in geography illustrates the history of the various races of human beings who have come and gone upon its surface. In South Africa it is natural to look first of all for old Bushman and Hottentot names, and such are the Keiskamma, a compound Hottentot or Koranna word, meaning 'sweet water,' also the Qora, a name given to a river known for its 'clay,' from which the native pipes were made. Further east, the Umzimvubu, the Umzimkulu, and Tugela indicate the Kaffir influence which predominated and drove out the Hottentots. The Hottentot or Koranna names begin more towards the west, and are found in the Gamtoos and Gouritz Rivers and in the Zitzikamma Forest. Kamma would appear to be the word Xlammi, meaning 'water'¹. Further north, the Gariep River bears a Hottentot name and means the Yellow River. Karroo, meaning a 'dry hard desert,' and gough, an onomatopoeic word expressing 'disgust,' are also Hottentot words.

(27) The Portuguese have left traces behind them in the Island of St. Croix, so called by Diaz, 1486; in Cape l'Agulhas, or 'The Needles'; Saldanha Bay, originally applied to Table Bay, was so named after Antonio de Saldanha, commander of a ship in Albuquerque's fleet (1503). The Cape of Good Hope received its name from the king of Portugal, being changed from Cabo di todos Tormentos, the Cape of all the Storms, as originally bestowed upon it. The circumnavigation of the Cape, rough though it was, gave 'Good Hope' indeed to the

¹ 'Transactions of South African Philosophical Society,' vol. i, 1878.

Portuguese mariners of the eastern trade. Vasco di Gama, landing in Mossel Bay in December, 1497, called it The Bay of St. Blaize, after the patron saint of Armenia, a name which is still retained and given to the promontory and lighthouse on the western extremity. The name of Mossel Bay was given, in 1602 or 1603, by Paul van Kaarden, a Dutch sailor, whilst on a coast survey, being suggested to him by a vast quantity of sea-shells found in a cave at a considerable height above the sea-level and believed to have been left there by the aborigines of the country. Algoa Bay and Point Padrone, further east, are other vestiges of Portuguese exploration; and St. Helena, the lonely Atlantic island, and St. Helena Bay on the western shores of Cape Colony, and Cape St. Francis on the south, recall that system of naming after saints of the Church which was so much in vogue in the fifteenth and subsequent centuries. For in those days the sailor took with him a saints' calendar as well as a mariner's compass.

(28) The signs of Dutch occupation meet us on all sides in the naming of places, although their nomenclature has sometimes been supplanted by English. *Dorp*, like *ville*, is a common suffix, as in *Burghersdorp*; *Olifants River*, of which there are many, means 'elephant river'; *Brakfontein* means 'bitter fountain'; *fontein* is used very largely everywhere, so is *vlei*, meaning 'hollow depression' or 'valley in which water collects'; *spruit* means 'brook,' as in *Cornet's spruit* in *Basutoland*, *stadt* the 'town' or 'homestead'; *kraal* is a Portuguese word meaning a 'compound' or 'inclosure'; *drift* means a 'ford,' as in *Fugitives' Drift*; *Platz* means a 'place' or 'farm,' *kopje* 'little head' or 'hillock'; *Tafelberg*, of which there are several, means 'table mountain'; *Fyn Bosch* is 'thick underwood' or 'forest'; *Poort* signifies a 'gorge' or 'pass,' *hoek* a 'corner' or 'valley.' Here and there a former Dutch governor

is immortalised. Graaf Reinet (1780) was so called after a Dutch governor, Van de Graaf, and his wife, whose maiden name was Reinet. Swellendam, Tulbagh, Plettenberg, Oudtshoorn, recall the former Dutch governors, Swellengreble (1739), Tulbagh (1751), Plettenberg (1771), Van Oudtshoorn (1773).

(29) The memory also of the Huguenot immigration is kept alive in Franche Hoek, and of the German immigration to Kaffraria in the towns and villages of Potsdam, Berlin, Stutterheim, and many others. Herschel is an abiding witness to the sojourn of the great astronomer beneath the clear skies of the Cape, who not only was distinguished as an astronomer at the Cape, but as an educationist, who helped largely to lay the foundation of the present wide system of education in the Colony, and inspired others to pursue the work. The Victorian epoch is loyally commemorated in the divisions of Queenstown, Victoria East, and Victoria West, and Prince Albert. Port Alfred and the Alfred Docks at Capetown are both of them reminders of the visit of the Duke of Edinburgh to the colony in August, 1861. The divisions of Worcester, Somerset East and West, and Beaufort West recall the memory of a former governor, Lord Charles Henry Somerset (1822), Wodehouse recalls the genial rule of Sir Philip Wodehouse (1861), and Barkly that of Sir Henry Barkly (1870). Kimberley and Bathurst are named after two well-known Downing Street officials in their day. Port Elizabeth was so named after Lady Elizabeth Donkin, wife of Sir Rufane Shaw Donkin (1820). Ladygrey and Ladyfrere are so named after the wives of two distinguished governors. Carnarvon perpetuates the memory of the late Lord Carnarvon, a most esteemed and popular statesman; and Warrenton in Griqualand West recalls the name of Sir Charles Warren, whose successful expedition to

Bechuanaland may be regarded as an epoch in Cape history.



CHAPTER VIII.

The Cape Constitution. Local Government and Divisional Councils. Religion. The University and Public Schools.

(1) The government of the Cape Colony is of the fully responsible character in accordance with which the executive are removable at the will of the electors. The Governor of the Colony is the representative of the Crown and keeps aloof from parties. He holds, however, a peculiar office and function at the Cape, known as the High Commissionership of South Africa, according to the terms of which he has the oversight of the natives within and without the borders of the Colony, and controls the relations of the Cape Colony with the neighbouring Republics. The terms of this Commissionership have increased from time to time with the expansion of South Africa northwards, until the sphere of the Governor's influence has reached, according to the latest developments, to the valley of the Zambesi and Mashonaland, a distance of more than 1500 miles from south to north.

(2) The circumstances of the Cape have been very different from those of other colonies, excepting perhaps New Zealand, where the native question existed at first as a serious bar to progress. But the New Zealanders are dying out, and the political problem is vanishing as far as the Maoris are concerned. In the Cape the Kaffirs are increasing under British protection and present a growing problem. The attitude of the Boers, also, has always been a standing difficulty. Sometimes on the

subject of slavery and slave compensation, sometimes on a question of trekking beyond the control of the State, and sometimes on matters of aimless lawlessness and the setting up of mock Republics, the Governor of the Cape, as representative of England's paramount position in South Africa, has been brought into conflict with the Boers. It was absolutely necessary that the ordinary powers of a constitutional Governor should be supplemented by the extraordinary powers of a High Commissioner. Yet the dual burden is vexing and vexatious. The position of a Constitutional Governor in Canada or Australia is simplicity itself compared with the almost anomalous status of the official who is at once the Governor of the Cape Colony and High Commissioner of South Africa. A generation ago, when mere border difficulties with the Kaffirs were the main ones, the situation was comparatively clear, but the growth of empire and of collateral responsibilities has increased the cares of Her Majesty's vicegerent at Capetown.

It was in 1878 that a very wide Commission was given to the late Sir Bartle Frere, in virtue of which he held control over the territories of South Africa adjacent to the Cape Colony, or with which it might be expedient that Her Majesty should have relations, and which are not included within the territory of either of the Republics or of any foreign power. As High Commissioner he was enjoined to take all measures and to do all that could lawfully and discreetly be done for preventing the recurrence of any irruption into Her Majesty's possessions by hostile tribes, and for maintaining the said possessions in peace and safety. The Commission issued to Sir Henry Loch, the present Governor, is, if anything, wider in its scope, and includes a far larger area of administration. In 1878 little was heard of any foreign power creating complications for England in South

Africa, but now there are the Germans on the West Coast and the Portuguese on the East. The South African Republic also occupies a very different position now from what it occupied in 1878. Nor did England's representatives at that date extend much further than Kimberley and the Diamond Fields on the north, but since then Zululand, Basutoland, British Bechuanaland, the Bechuanaland Protectorate, and such territories as Swaziland and Tongaland have been brought under the control and within the sphere of her influence.

(3) The Government which the British displaced at the Cape was of an extremely close and oligarchic character. The governing body was called 'The Council of Policy,' and consisted of eight members, (1) the Commander or Governor, (2) the Secunde, (3 and 4) the two military officers highest in rank, (5) the Fiscal, (6) the Treasurer, (7) the Salesman, (8) the garrison book-keeper. There were also certain public bodies, such as (1) the Burgher Council, (2) the Church Council, (3) the Board of Militia, (4) the Matrimonial Court, (5) the Orphan Chamber, (6) the Court of Commissioners for petty cases; But one and all were subject to the Court of Policy, and were not in any sense popular bodies¹. The term Free Burgher was a complete misnomer, the first Burghership being simply a change from the position of paid to unpaid servants of the Company. The Burghers were trammelled and confined in all things, and the orders and proclamations were so rigid that it would have been 'impossible to carry out the penalties therein except with the utter ruin of the Burghers².' The officials at the Castle at Capetown inflicted all kinds of vexatious rules of etiquette upon the unfortunate in-

¹ Theal's 'History of South Africa,' p. 280.

² 'Selections from the Writings of the late Judge Watermeyer,' p. 46.

habitants, and the ceremonial of their Court was as hard and rigid as that of any despot, extending to the sumptuary laws, the prescribing of certain kinds of fashions of apparel, the definitions of the various grades of society. The title of Senior and Junior Merchants was a very exclusive one in the old Dutch Government and had a peculiar significance. Only the Governor, the Fiscal or Attorney-General, the Secunde, and the Commandant of the Castle, were counted as *opper koopmanner* or senior merchants. The grades were as strictly laid down as in John Locke's Constitutions of Carolina. The Church was allied closely to the State, the clergyman taking rank as a merchant, but between the officials and the burghers there was a huge social gap. Above all towered the stately and powerful Chamber of XVII, which, from their headquarters in Holland, swayed the destinies of the Dutch East India Company. In the Cape itself, 'despotism had taken deep root, the foundations of tyranny were firm, the term "colonial freemen" had lost all significance of the liberty which freemen in Europe enjoyed. The heads of the government and the original burghers knew that freedom here was the mockery of a name, that burghership was a state of subservience to the Company, and the new comers, whatever their European views of the rights of citizenship, were constrained to bow their heads and yield. Dependent on the government, if in all things obedient, they might prosper in their private circumstances. But to assert any political right, or to murmur against exactions, entailed confiscation of them all, separation from their families, exile to the Mauritius or to some penal station'. With the advent of the English came personal freedom and, in course of time, full political emancipation.

¹ 'Selections from the Writings of the late Judge Watermeyer,' p. 62.

The following is a brief account of the steps by which the Cape achieved responsible government after passing into the hands of the British. (i) From 1806 to 1825 the country was ruled absolutely by the Governor, his will being law in all matters. (ii) From 1825 to 1834 the Governor was assisted by a deliberative Council of six officers. (iii) From 1834 to 1850 it is possible to detect the influences of home politics and the effect of the Great Reform Bill of 1832. The question of a Free Press had been fought out in the Colony in 1824 by Fairbairn and Pringle, two Scotch colonists, and now there was a cry for a more popular representation. Such a demand was in keeping with the view of politicians at home, and the request was acceded to. Two Councils were created, the one Executive and the other Legislative. The Executive consisted of four official persons, the Legislative of twelve and not less than ten, five being official, and the remaining five or seven unofficial. (iv) In 1850, during the Grey administration, a Constitution was given, consisting of Governor, Legislative Council, and a House of Assembly, both of them elected by the people, with power to appropriate their own revenue. (v) In 1872, during the Governorship of Sir Henry Barkly, full responsible government was conceded, in virtue of which the Executive could be removed by the will of the majority.

(4) It is only roughly speaking that the Constitution of the Cape Colony may be said to resemble the British Constitution. There are two Houses, that of the Legislative Council with 21 members, and that of the Legislative Assembly with 76 members. The forms and procedure of the Cape Parliament are modelled upon the old lines, and a debate is carried on in the time-honoured fashion and with considerably less obstruction than in the House at Westminster. Eloquence has not been

banished from the Cape Parliament, and upon grave crises the display of forensic ability is remarkable. There have been many questions touching constitutional rights, philanthropic motive, reform, privilege, and the whole native policy, which have seemed to call forth a great deal of impassioned rhetoric from the Cape politicians. At one time the philanthropic party fought hard for equal privileges and the franchise for the natives; naturally stirring to the very depths the opposition of those who never could admit the equality of the black and white races; at another time, as in the days of Sir Bartle Frere, when the Molteno-Morrison Cabinet was dismissed, the question of the Governor's prerogative was raised and a test case determined in Colonial Constitutional History. During the Gaika-Gcaleka war the Governor was at variance with his executive on the question of the control of the forces in the field, and by his action established the principle that there could be no dual control of Imperial and Colonial forces. Again, on the question of the Basuto Disarmament Act, debates ran high in the Cape Parliament, and the whole matter was argued on both sides with great ability.

(5) In many details a parliamentary life at the Cape differs from that in the mother country. The members of both Houses are paid for their services at the Cape, at the rate of 30s. a day together with travelling allowances; and the qualification of a seat for the House of Assembly, which corresponds to the English House of Commons, is simply that of a voter. The qualifications of a member for the Council or the Upper House are that he must be not less than thirty years of age, and the owner of immoveable property within the Colony of not less value than £2000. Although the bicameral system has been adopted at the Cape, there is sometimes a public

desire evinced for one legislative chamber only as being more effective and economical, but the attacks on the Council have never been very serious, and the Constitution Ordinance will probably remain as it now stands. The majority of the members of the Upper House are Dutch farmers and landowners, with somewhat Conservative tendencies. They are leavened, however, by the more enterprising and mercantile elements from Capetown, Port Elizabeth, and Kimberley. The Legislative Council originally consisted of six Western and seven Eastern elective members, when the Cape Colony was broadly divided into the Western Province and the Eastern Province. In 1865 this number was increased to twenty-one, the Western returning eleven and the Eastern Province ten; and in 1874 the seven Electoral Circles or Provinces were adopted, and in 1880 Griqualand West was added to the number.

(6) With regard to the Franchise, the following are entitled to vote: (1) occupiers for twelve months of a house, warehouse, shop, or other building of the value of £25, (2) the joint occupiers whose share is not less than £25, (3) the recipients during not less than twelve months of salary or wages, at the rate of not less than £50 per annum, or of £25 per annum with board and lodging. Voters are entitled to be registered in more than one division. Quite recently an alteration was made in the terms of the franchise which affected the native vote; and it was enacted that 'no person should be entitled to be registered as a voter by reason of his sharing in any communal or tribal occupation of lands or buildings, unless he shall be in actual occupation for the period required by the eighth section of the Constitution Ordinance of a house or other building, whether situated or not situated on land held on tribal or communal tenure; which house or building, separately or together, with

land occupied therewith, held upon other than tribal or communal tenure, shall be of the value of £25.' It may be said that the striking feature about the franchise is the share given to the coloured classes¹. The constitutional privilege was heralded in with great display of philanthropic feeling, and in 1850 Mr. Porter, a well-known Cape politician of the day, remarked, 'This £25 franchise is with me a *sine quâ non*. If you are prepared to disappoint the expectation of the coloured classes; if you are prepared to destroy the hope that representative institutions would come into operation in harmony and good feeling; if you are prepared to sow the wind and reap the whirlwind; if you are prepared to tell these people that you fear to admit them to the privilege of the Constitution, and thus create in their minds that dread of class legislation which they are so liable to entertain; if you are prepared to do all this, I, for one, will be ready to tear the Draft Ordinance in pieces,' &c., &c. The natives have been admitted to the privileges of the franchise, but it cannot be said that during the period of forty years since then they have largely availed themselves of them. The most important native vote is found amongst the Malays at Capetown and its suburbs, and in the Eastern Province amongst the Fingoes, native locations, Mission Stations, and the Transkeian territories, such as Griqualand East and Tembuland. In the Kat River settlement in the Stockenstrom district there are many Hottentot voters. But the privilege of the franchise, however carried out in the Cape Colony and South Africa generally, could scarcely end in conferring the balance of power upon the coloured population.

There is no sign as yet that the Kaffirs take eagerly to the political privileges held out to them. Mr. H. G. Elliott, the Chief Magistrate of Tembuland, writes in

his Report: 'I do not think any political impression whatever has been produced upon the native population of this territory by the return of a member to the House of Assembly. I am confident that not five per cent. know the meaning of it, and not one per cent. care anything about it, and that the balance only wish to be left as they are. They are all very suspicious of changes¹.' Mr. W. E. Stanford, the Magistrate of Griqualand East, observes: 'I cannot find that much impression, beyond the hope of relief from taxation, was created by the return of a member for the territory among the natives who were privileged to vote².' It may be observed that upon the occasion of the registration of native voters, when the revising Court sits, proceedings are watched very narrowly by the representatives of the *Africander Bond*³.

At present, however, the native vote is not very numerous or formidable, except in King William's Town, Fort Beaufort, and Alice. The Kaffirs have not as yet shown themselves eager for a freehold and the franchise, and are naturally slow to exchange their own customs and manners of living for the privileges of English constitutional life. These European ideas are destined to work very slowly, and to come into operation only when radical changes have taken place in the natives themselves. At the Cape, political apathy has, in former times especially, been the rule rather than the exception. In 1878, when the burning question of Confederation was before the country, only 18,818 out of 44,655 registered voters went to the poll. The Dutch have generally left the task of governing and the duties of administration to the English colonists, who have been better fitted by character and training.

¹ See 'Blue Book on Native Affairs,' 1889.

² *Ibid.* p. 47.

³ *Ibid.* p. 16.

(7) The *Africander Bond*, however, has become a most important political organisation within recent years, and has paid great attention to registration, canvassing, and electioneering generally. It sprang into existence shortly after the Boer war of 1880-1, with the main object of arousing the hitherto sluggish political life of the rural population of the Cape Colony, who are chiefly Dutch. The first Congress of the Bond was held at Graaf Reinet in March 1882, when eighteen delegates met together from various places. Its first promoters were the Reverend S. J. du Toit and Mr. D. F. du Toit in the Cape Colony, and Chief Justice Reitz and Mr. Borekenhagen in the Free State. The meetings of the Bond were attended by representatives of the Farmers' Association, and the two organisations were united. The first Congress was held at Richmond in January 1883. There are now 149 branches, with a membership of 3,923. The object of the Bond is stated to be 'The formation of a South African nationality by means of union and co-operation, as a preparation for the ultimate object, a "United South Africa".' The influence of the *Africander Bond* is largely felt in the Cape Parliament.

A Cape Ministry is constituted as follows: (1) The Premier, (2) the Colonial Secretary, (3) the Treasurer General, (4) the Attorney General, (5) the Commissioner of Crown Lands and Public Works, (6) the Secretary for Native Affairs, and sometimes (7) a Minister without a portfolio. The Ministries of the Cape have had fairly long lives; the first, or the Molteno Ministry, lasting five years and two months; the second, or Sprigg Ministry, lasting three years and three months; the third, or Scanlen Ministry, lasting three years; the fourth, or Upington Sprigg Ministry, lasting three years.

(8) *Local Government.* The Divisional Councils, first established in the year 1855, are charged with the duties

of keeping the roads in order, collecting tolls, carrying out sanitary regulations, controlling 'outspans,' and providing generally for local wants. They can also borrow money for local public works. To discover the liabilities of each landowner and occupier, an assessment is made every five years. This assessment is generally much below the real value of the property in question. With regard to the roads of the various districts and divisions, it cannot be said that the Divisional Councils have done their duty well, as the 'Queen's highway' is often a disgrace to the country. The length of the main roads in the Colony is 4,016 miles, other roads 14,378, so that if the duties were scrupulously carried out the Divisional Councils would have a public task of the first magnitude before them. Many of the public roads at the Cape are simply tracks along the veldt altered from time to time as the driver thinks fit. The heavy transport waggons, too, with their loads of 10,000 lbs. to 12,000 lbs., cut deep ruts in the tracks and would test even a macadamised thoroughfare. The heavy thunderstorms of the country also increase the troubles of the road-makers, and quickly convert ruts into runnels of water.

The Divisional Council Valuation corresponds roughly to our own Poor Law Valuation, although, of course, the relief of the poor and the maintenance of pauper local institutions do not fall upon the land. Throughout the Cape Colony there is a great reluctance to tax land or to levy any kind of direct rate. The Dutch landowners are an extremely large and influential class, and would be the first to protest against any impost on land or the agricultural or pastoral industries. The Divisional Councils are elected triennially, and consist, in each case, of eight elective members, exclusive of the Civil Commissioner, who is Chairman. In each division of the Colony,

except the Cape division, there are six Councils. With regard to the personnel of the Divisional Councils, it is generally the wealthy and influential landowners, the deacons of the Dutch Reformed Church, and the leading capitalists that are returned. As Local Boards they have a great deal of authority, and on the question of the sale and disposal of waste and Crown lands they have generally proved themselves to be ardent monopolists. Land rings are not unknown in the Cape Colony, and the principle of co-optation often peeps out in the apparently popular form of election. Within recent years the Councils have been relieved of all official duties in respect to land and schools. Their number is sixty-five altogether, and their receipts during the year 1888 consisted of £116,063.

Municipalities were first established in 1836. Every municipality is governed by a Council, composed of a mayor or chairman, and councillors numbering not less than six nor more than twenty-four; a certain number of whom are elected annually by the ratepayers. Town Councils or Municipalities have power to levy a landlord's or owner's rate assessed upon the value of rateable property, and a tenant's rate assessed upon the annual value of such* property, no rate to exceed 2*d.* in the pound on the value, or 8*d.* in the pound on the annual value. There are eighty Municipalities in the Cape Colony with receipts amounting in 1888 to £306,057.

Village Management Boards, of which there are fifty-three in the Colony, exist chiefly in hamlets not entrusted with full municipal privileges. These boards have no power to levy rates, and their powers are not so full, naturally, as those of the Municipalities¹.

(9) *Religion.* From 1806, the date of the British occupation, to 1853, Parliamentary grants in aid of the clergy of various denominations were distributed,

¹ 'Colonial Office List,' 1890, p. 92.

amounting in the last-named year to £16,060. But in 1875 these grants were gradually abolished by a measure known as 'The Voluntary Act.' The rights of present incumbents were respected and they continued to receive their stipends; but after their death or resignation the claim to public support lapsed. It was also provided that the successors of such as should die or resign before the expiration of five years, from the taking effect of the Act, should continue to receive the grants up to the expiration of the five years. The State Church of the Cape Colony was the Dutch Reformed, and its beginnings lay far back in the history of the country; ever since the time when the Dutch East India Company provided the official known as 'The Sick Comforter' to minister to the garrison. In 1665 an Ecclesiastical Court was established, consisting of (1) a member of the Council of Policy, who was termed the political Commissioner (*Commissaris politicque*), (2) the clergyman, who was a servant of the Company, (3) the deacons, who were selected by the Council of Policy from a double list of names furnished yearly by the Court itself, and (4) the elders, who were indeed elected by the Court as representatives of the Congregation, but who could perform no duties until the elections were confirmed by the temporal authorities. This court had primary control of all purely religious observances, and the direction in the first instance of all educational institutions. It is described as being merely an engine of the State, and as being always and in every case subordinate to the Council of Policy. The members of the Dutch Reformed Church are guided by the decrees of the Synod of Dort and by precedents of the courts of the fatherland¹. One of the most burning questions which divided the clergy of the Reformed Church in its early days was

¹ Theal's 'South Africa,' p. 169.

whether the children of unbelieving parents should be baptised or not. At the Cape the custom had been for the ship's chaplains to baptise all slave children brought to them, at the same time admonishing the owners to have them educated in Christian principles. Baptism and a profession of Christianity were always considered in those days a sufficient reason for claiming emancipation. The Ecclesiastical Court at Batavia, as well as the Classis of Amsterdam, had also decided according to the more tolerant view of the case, and the Honourable Company had established a school at Batavia for the education of the children of its own slaves, all of whom were baptised in infancy, and the Cape authorities were directed to do the same. They arrived at this opinion from the precedent furnished by the patriarch Abraham, all the males of whose household had been circumcised on account of their master's faith. This broad interpretation is in striking contrast to ideas and prejudices which have subsequently prevailed in South Africa. In the Dutch Republics, at the present moment, equality in Church and State is denied the black man. In the eighteenth and part of the nineteenth century the years of servitude for the native were many and hard, until indeed the spirit of English philanthropists was stirred and wiped out the disgrace of slavery.

(10) Generally speaking, the spirit of religious life in South Africa has been intensely Protestant. The feelings of Protestantism were ingrained in the first Dutch officials at the Cape, who had small reason to love the Roman Catholic Church in the great struggles of the seventeenth century and during the life and death contest with Spain. So high did the feeling run, that when in May, 1660, a French ship called the 'Marichal' was wrecked in Table Bay, the shipwrecked crew were forbidden by Mr. van Riebeeck, the first Dutch Governor,

to celebrate worship according to the ritual of the Church of Rome. In fact all religious ceremonies were prohibited in the settlement, excepting those of the Reformed Church of Holland. Later on, when in June, 1685, Father Tachard and a party of six Jesuit missionaries, on an embassy to the king of Siam, touched at the Cape, they were received with official courtesy, but were, at the same time, forbidden to celebrate mass on shore. When the French Huguenots arrived at the Cape they naturally brought with them a detestation of the Roman Catholic faith, having suffered so greatly in their own persons and properties from the religious persecutions of the age. Later on, by the immigration of the 1820 settlers, it was Wesleyanism and Scotch Presbyterianism, rather than Episcopalianism, that seemed to be reinforced. The ecclesiastical lawsuits of the English Church and the many appeals to the Privy Council have, in more recent times, crippled the resources and hindered the progress of this Church.

(11) Episcopalianism is a growing force in South Africa, as the establishment of fresh Sees from time to time abundantly proves. There are now eight Dioceses in South Africa, distributed as follows: that of (1) Capetown, where the Metropolitan resides, (2) Grahamstown, (3) the Island of St. Helena, (4) Bloemfontein, in the Free State, (5) Maritzburg, (6) Zululand, (7) St. John's, (8) Pretoria. The work, therefore, of the Church of England extends far beyond the borders of the Cape Colony, and is gradually being extended into the country of Mashonaland, where a ninth Diocese will be formed. In Central Africa and Eastern Equatorial Africa we reach another and very distinct sphere of work, with which at present the Dutch Reformed Church cannot in any way compete. It must be remembered, however, how great a sphere of missionary work awaits the Episcopal Church

within the borders of the Cape Colony itself, and especially along the eastern borders. It is ascertained that, at the present moment, there are in the Cape Colony fully 750,000 persons, white and coloured, professing no religion at all. This constitutes about one-half of the whole population—a great field for Mission effort.

(12) With regard to the above Dioceses, that of Cape-town is the oldest, being founded in 1847; the first Bishop being Robert Gray. The oversight of the whole area of the Colony, as well as that of the adjoining South African Islands, fell upon Bishop Gray, and in 1853 the Sees of Grahamstown, covering the eastern portions of the Cape Colony and of Natal, were separated, and entrusted respectively to Bishops Armstrong and Colenso. The well-known Colenso controversy ended in a split in the Natal Diocese, and Bishop Macrorie was made Bishop of Maritzburg in 1869. The distant Islands also of St. Helena, the victualling-place of our East Indiamen in former days, and Tristan d'Acunha, the abode of a few sailors engaged in whaling, required separate care, and in 1859 Bishop Claughton was given the charge of these lonely Atlantic Islands. The Diocese of Bloemfontein was founded in 1863, and the Diocese of Zululand in 1870, the latter in memory of Bishop Mackenzie, the first Bishop of Equatorial Africa. The Cathedral of this Diocese is a memorial building on the fatal field of Isandlwana. In 1873, Bishop Callaway, a well-known scholar and native linguist, was sent to St. John's, Kaffraria, so that, within thirty years, the progress of the South African Churches became most marked. During these years the indefatigable Bishop Gray was the Metropolitan of the English Church in South Africa, and the leading spirit of all Church-work.

(13) The following are statistics of the principal religious sects in the Cape Colony:—

The *Dutch Reformed Church* has a total membership of 297,983 persons, of whom 220,649 are white and 77,334 coloured. Their ministers number 108, with 128 main stations and 158 out-stations. Next in point of numbers comes the *Church of England*, with a membership of 139,058 persons, of whom 69,789 are white and 69,269 coloured. Their ministers number 145, with 140 main stations and 242 out-stations. The *Wesleyan Methodists* have a membership of 106,132 persons, of whom 19,509 are white and 86,623 are coloured. Their ministers are 169, with 128 main stations and 1,416 out-stations. The *Congregationalists*, *Independents*, and *London Missionary Society* have a membership of 65,737, of whom 2,630 are white and the others coloured. The number of their ministers is thirty, with forty-one main stations and seventy-five out-stations. The *Presbyterians* and *United Presbyterians* number about 33,000 members, and the *Lytherans* about 6,260. The *Roman Catholics* number 17,219, of whom 14,797 are white and 2,422 are coloured. The *Moravians* have a membership of 16,297, of whom 169 are white and 16,128 coloured. The number of their ministers is twenty, working at thirteen main stations and nine out-stations. The *Rhenish Mission* numbers 14,271, and the *Berlin Mission* 7,012. The *French Reformed Church* numbers 2,500, most of them being natives, and the *Jews* 3,007¹.

(14) These figures call for some comment, as they will show the nature and the extent of the work being done by the various denominations. It will be seen that the Dutch Reformed Church is largely predominant with a membership of 297,983, nearly one-half of the whole number coming under the various sects. Yet this Church has only 108 ministers as contrasted with the 169 of the Wesleyan Methodists, and the 145 of the Church of

¹ 'Argus Annual,' 1890, and 'Census Summaries,' 1891.

England. This is explained by the fact that, comparatively speaking, the Dutch Reformed Church has very few out-stations. The Wesleyan Methodists have no less than 1,416 as contrasted with their 158 out-stations, showing the superior proselytising zeal of this sect. The Church of England also has 242 out-stations, although so much inferior in numbers and wealth to the Dutch Church. If we examine the Kaffir membership we shall find that the Wesleyan Methodists with their 63,000 are doing nearly half of the whole missionary work in the Colony, the Dutch Reformed Church only counting 5,000. The Roman Catholics seem, by the returns, to be doing little or nothing with the natives, the membership of the latter being only 2,422 as contrasted with the 14,797 Europeans belonging to this Communion. Quite the opposite result is seen in the efforts of the Moravians, the oldest missionary sect in the Cape, who have only 169 white adherents, but no fewer than 16,128 coloured converts. With regard to the Church of England, she would seem to have too many rather than too few ministers according to her means and position ; but this may partially be accounted for by the great zeal of Bishop Gray, whose object was to set up as many centres of influence as possible, and, these centres once existing, it was thought impossible to withdraw them. It may be remarked that the Dutch Reformed Church represents, generally speaking, the landowners and farmers of the Cape Colony, who are a wealthy class and extremely attached to their Church. Any one who has been present at a Bazaar held in aid of their Churches, or at the *Nacht-maal*, the trimonthly celebration of the Lord's Supper, when farmers drive immense distances in order to be present, will notice that there is much fervent religious feeling as well as ecclesiastical discipline in this Church. Very often the farmers living at a distance

have at the dorps or villages a house or cottage kept expressly for their convenience when they attend divine service. In the first instance, also, the Church has often been the germ of the various country towns and villages. In the sphere of mission-work the Wesleyan Methodists, as above stated, must be credited with the greatest amount of work ; but the Church of England, with her native membership of 69,269, is making splendid proselytising efforts, especially in the eastern parts of the Colony. In Basutoland the French Protestant Mission has long been established, and has almost monopolised the good work amongst these 'Highlanders' of South Africa. In Damaraland and Namaqualand the Rhenish Missionaries have laboured with great success, many of their number being distinguished linguists and scholars.

(15) In the Republics it may be observed that in the Transvaal the voluntary system is in force, no grants being made out of the public revenue in aid of any ministers of religion. In the Free State a fixed grant of £600 is made to the Dutch Reformed Church, which is divided by the Synod of the Church amongst all its members. Fixed grants are also made in the Free State to the following sects and in the following proportions : to the Episcopal Church £250, to the Wesleyans £250, to the Lutherans £200, to the Scotch Presbyterians £100. To the Roman Catholic Church there is an annual vote of £50. The discipline of the Dutch Reformed Church, strong as it is, has not been sufficient to stop all dissent. Two parties have been distinguished in their Church—the orthodox or conservative party, and the liberal or progressive ; and at the Synods divergences of opinions on matters of doctrine are sometimes discernible. There is also a third party known as the Dopper Church or the Separatist Reformed Church, having its origin in 1859 when a dispute arose between

the clergy of the South African Republic. The dispute turned mainly on the use of hymns and paraphrases of Scripture, and the Separatists determined to use those only of the latter which were put in rhyme in the Netherlands in 1773. At the same time they divorced themselves from the Cape Synod by declaring that the confirmation of credentials of clergymen in the South African Republic by the Cape Synod was unnecessary, unsafe, and even dangerous in an independent State. These Separatist doctrines, having a certain foundation on State reasons, have grown, and command the sympathy of a large and influential body in the Republics and in some parts of the Cape Colony¹. The Presbyteries of the Dutch Reformed Church meet annually in the month of October, and a Synod meets once in five years and appoints standing committees for the supervision of missions, the examination of candidates for the ministry, and for education. The theological training-college for the predicants or ministers is at Stellenbosch. The clergy of the Dutch Reformed Church take part in politics, and, not unfrequently, a Dutch minister is elected to represent his constituency in the legislature. President Francois Burgers, the well-known President of the first South African Republic, was in the first instance a minister of the Reformed Church.

(16) *Education*. During the Dutch régime, from 1652 to 1795, there was little or no education in South Africa. Now and then the Dutch East India Company would provide for the religious instruction of slave and native children, and converts were made from the Hottentot clans. The Comforter of the Sick, as the clergyman at the Cape in those early days was called, undertook occasionally some voluntary work; but, as might be

¹ Theal's 'History of the South African Republics,' p. 129.

expected, there was no organised system. When the Colonists began to trek or move away up country, beyond the control of the Dutch Company, they missed what little educational opportunities there were at the Cape itself.

I. In 1714, however, a Dutch governor, named de Chavonnes, struck with the prevalent ignorance, set forth a well-known School-Ordinance. It was of a distinctly religious character. The younger pupils were to be taught the Lord's Prayer, the Creed, and the Ten Commandments, while the elder pupils were to be exercised in the singing of Psalms and examined in the sermon preached by the minister on Sundays. The control lay with a body of teachers called 'Scholarchs.' There was not one good school in the colony in 1800, nor was there a single bookstall or newspaper. The only printing press was a small one used for printing the government notes or paper money¹.

II. Between 1803 and 1806 the Dutch rulers seem to have made greater efforts, and a certain Commissioner de Mist issued a new School-Ordinance providing for the education of all the population, male and female. But his efforts were too late, as Dutch rule was soon to come to an end at the Cape.

III. In 1822, Lord Charles Somerset, the British Governor, established English schools and paid the salaries of the teachers out of the Colonial Treasury; thus establishing the principle of State aid for education. The English language was to be exclusively taught and adopted in the courts of law.

IV. In 1838, Sir John Herschel was Astronomer Royal at the Cape, and, taking a great interest in education, drew up an excellent national scheme. He recommended state aid and state control, and brought the

¹ Theal's 'Compendium,' p. 161.

educational system under one head, instead of allowing it to be managed by a Board of Education Commissioners.

V. From 1858 to 1874, an Examining Board granted certificates of merit to all students who presented themselves for examination, thus forming the germ of a future University.

In 1865, the system laid down by Sir John Herschel was formally adopted by the State.

VI. In 1874, the Higher Education Act was passed by the Colonial Legislature, and a professional body called into existence. Thus the coping-stone was placed upon the whole edifice. The University Act of Incorporation (16 of 1873) provides that the institution shall be a body politic and corporate, consisting of a Chancellor, a Vice-Chancellor, a Council, and Graduates. Moreover, the Act of Incorporation empowers the Council to confer degrees and grant certificates of proficiency, but, prohibits the administration of any religious test.

In August, 1877, Letters Patent gave the University a charter. By this charter the degrees conferred by this University are entitled to the same rank, precedence, and consideration,* as if granted by any University in the United Kingdom.

Such, briefly speaking, is the history of educational progress in South Africa. Unlike the New England settlements, and elsewhere in those colonies founded by the Anglo-Saxon race, education was allowed to lapse in Dutch South Africa. For more than 150 years the scattered Boer population may be said to have been left in the wilderness without education; and this fact in their history accounts for much of their present ignorance and unprogressiveness.

(17) The present system embraces all classes, European or native, and is so arranged as to admit of progress from

the lowest grade to the highest. The system is as follows:—

- (1) The University,
- (2) Six Colleges,
- (3) First Class Public Schools, undenominational,
- (4) Second „ „ „
- (5) Third „ „ „

with a large number of Mission Schools. During the year 1888–9 there were 1,447 schools in operation, with a roll of 93,415 children. There were 434 Public Schools of classes 1, 2, 3, and 250 Private Farm Schools—a comparatively new feature—and 435 Mission Schools. The ordinary educational expenditure for grants in aid amounted to £85,000, the undenominational Public Schools taking 32 per cent. of the expenditure, and Mission and Aborigines Institutions taking more than 33 per cent. ; thus showing that the Cape Government is alive to the great task of educating the natives, although as yet the results are meagre¹.

The following are the standards of elementary education at the Cape:—

Require- ments.	Standard I.	Standard II.	Standard III.	Standard IV.
Reading . .	Narrative in Mono-syllables.	Narrative from an Elementary Reading Book.	Any ordinary narrative.	Any ordinary narrative fluently and correctly.
Writing . .	Write on Slate figures.	Write short sentences to Dictation and transcribe passages from the book.	Write an ordinary passage dictated slowly.	Write freely to Dictation.
Arithmetic .	Simple Addition and Multiplication Table.	Any example in Simple Rules.	Compound Rules (Money).	Practice, Proportion, and Vulgar Fractions.
Geography	Outlines of descriptive Geography.	Descriptive Geography generally.
Grammar	Elements of Grammar, Parts of Speech, Composition, &c., &c.

¹ See 'Census Summaries,' 1891.

(18) One of the chief features of the Cape educational system is the *First Class undenominational public school*, both for boys and girls, which has a strictly defined range of studies, whose acknowledged standard is matriculation, whose masters are engaged wholly with an eye to the requirements of the University, and whose pupils are frequently engaged in a study of Latin and Greek and the higher range of mathematics. The number of these schools is, according to the latest education returns, over sixty, dotted about all over the country at the chief towns and villages. Wherever the existence of such a school is warranted by the circumstances, the Government subsidises it to the amount of £200 for a principal, £150 for a vice-principal, and £100 for each assistant master. A guarantee is always necessary on the part of those most interested in the institution locally, and the salary of teachers is made up by tuition fees, so that the First Class undenominational school is not very difficult to create in the first instance. Such a school provides a good intermediate education, and is a boon to many residents of the more wealthy classes. It is somewhat out of the range of the poorer classes, who, of course, are both actually and proportionately far less numerous than in England. Besides, there are other schools to which they can send their children, if they choose, even the Mission Schools giving a good elementary training. It will be observed, however, that the Cape Government helps *all* classes by Treasury grants. In England there are no such educational opportunities for the farmers, merchants, traders, and professional men, as in the Cape Colony. For the payment of a comparatively trifling sum of £10 or £12 for tuition fees, a good practical and even classical training can be procured in the distant towns and villages of the Colony. The Second Class public schools, also, aim at a

high standard. In such a school the pupils generally are required to go through and thoroughly master a standard science handbook, and in almost every elementary school the elements of physical science are taught; and thus the facilities given to the agricultural population of getting their children educated are greater than the same class have in England. The system has been thus described by Mr. Donald Ross, late Inspector General of the Cape Schools: 'The system was mapped out expressly to provide a gradation. From the unit of the system—the Third Class school—the pupil was to go by regular gradation up to the second and first class grades, following as far as local circumstances permit the analogy of the German system; which offers a series of degrees of distinction through the schools—the Primary, the Real, the Gymnasium—and the Faculties in the various Universities to all who can profit by them. The boy who lives on a farm was to get a certain amount of elementary education at a Third Class school, and the University programme was to be almost wholly the guide of the teacher of the First Class school, whose appointment depended, in the first instance, upon his fitness to prepare for matriculation.'

(19) Alongside of the undenominational public schools a large number of *private schools* exist throughout the colony, which succeed occasionally in emptying the public schools, and are supported largely at Capetown, Port Elizabeth, Grahamstown, Malmesbury, and Graaf-Reinet. They are a protest probably against the secularism of the government system. Parents desire to send their children to schools where they are better looked after, where religious studies and exercises are the rule, and the moral life of the young is guided and fashioned. This, in the opinion of many, is considered a most essential part of the whole idea of education. Under

the Cape system it is clear that there can be nothing like the great public school system which prevails in England. The only approach to this is found in the Diocesan College at Rondebosch, an institution founded by Bishop Gray, and, in its tone and character, a most exceptional success in the educational world. From its very beginning, this College has endeavoured to adopt, as far as circumstances will admit, the spirit and teaching of Winchester.

(20) In one other and not unimportant particular the Cape system has been productive of good. It has called into existence most excellent school accommodation, created generally by local effort without any aid from taxation. The Roman Catholics are very eager in the cause of education, and excel in school-buildings¹; and at the Paarl, Wellington, Worcester, Graaf-Reinet, Beaufort West, Swellendam, Oudtshoorn, and elsewhere are splendid buildings erected by the zeal of the Dutch Reformed Church. There are also most excellent buildings for the natives at Lovedale, Blythswood, Mr. Esselen's, at Worcester, and Genadendal. The willingness of the Cape public to erect suitable buildings for educational purposes may be exemplified by the case of the Gill College, Somerset East, when a sum of £28,000 was bequeathed by Dr. Gill to endow three Professorial Chairs at any centre where a suitable college could be built. In a very short space of time £6,000 was subscribed by the inhabitants of Somerset East and the adjoining districts for a college in their midst².

The government-aided schools at the Cape are of course subject to inspection, and this work is done by a staff of six inspectors. The work of these officials

¹ 'Report on Education by Donald Ross,' 1883, p. 15.

² Appendix vi.

is of a very complicated and arduous character, owing to the variety of schools they have to inspect and the scattered nature of the population. From Capetown to Kaffirland is a far cry, and the amount of travelling to be undergone by the inspectors in the performance of their duties is very great. The existence also of three languages in the Colony and its borders complicates the whole educational machinery, and increases the number of text-books and primers. Recently there has been a revival of Dutch language and Dutch literature, and a desire has been evinced in some quarters to substitute the 'Africander taal,' or Cape Dutch, in the place of English.

(21) The Cape University has no close resemblance to the older Scotch, English, or German Universities. For instance, it differs from Heidelberg and Edinburgh in that it is neither teaching nor resident, and it differs from such an University as Oxford or Cambridge in that it is neither resident, teaching, nor tutorial. The chief, although not the only, work of the University is to examine candidates for their degrees. The Cape University, in its system and its examinations, follows upon the lines of London University. The curriculum of its Matriculation Examination is a wide one, as a knowledge of Algebra, Euclid, Arithmetic, French, English, Chemistry, and Latin is required. But the Matriculation is upon the whole a useful examination, and it frequently forms the goal of a young colonist's ambition. He enters for it at about seventeen and then takes up his employment, whether it is on a farm, or at a store, or in a Government office.

After the Matriculation Examination two examinations await the Cape student who is anxious to gain a degree. (1) *The Intermediate*, taken about a year after the pupil has passed his Matriculation. (2) The B.A. The M.A. Examination may follow.

(22) Originally the University had but two examinations, the B.A. and M.A. simply, but it was thought well to interpose the 'Intermediate,' in order to persuade pupils to follow up their elementary work a year longer, and to pause before specialising in the Final Examination. The pupil is supposed to specialise out of a large field of optional subjects, after the 'Intermediate,' which is in reality an examination carrying on what is called 'school' as opposed to 'college' work. At the age of eighteen or nineteen therefore a pupil decides to follow up either 'Classics and Literature,' or 'Science and Mathematics.'

(23) The colleges at which the higher training is procurable are (1) the Diocesan College at Rondebosch near Capetown, (2) the South African College in Capetown itself, (3) the Stellenbosch College, (4) the Gray Institute at Port Elizabeth, (5) St. Andrew's College at Grahamstown, (6) the Gill College at Somerset East. At Stellenbosch there is moreover a Government Agricultural School called the Victoria College, with a useful practical syllabus. According, however, to the latest returns it contains only ten students, which is a surprising fact, when we consider how important it is that Cape farmers should be well equipped with scientific knowledge in dealing with the phylloxera amongst their vines, and the numerous diseases which, in a special degree, attack their horses, sheep, and oxen. There is probably no colony in the world where a knowledge of agricultural chemistry, soils, minerals, and botany, as well as the skill of a veterinary surgeon, is more imperative than in South Africa.

(24) It may be remarked that, by the aid of private munificence, rich rewards are offered to prominent Cape students. The Porter Studentship, awarded to the candidate obtaining the highest aggregate of marks in the

Honours division of the B.A. degree, is of the value of £150 for three years, and enables the winner to proceed to some home University. The Jamison Scholarship of £200, for four years, is confined to the South African College. The Edden Scholarship is of the value of £200 for three years, and, like the other two, encourages the winner to go to a home University. There is a Military Cadetship of the Royal Military College at Sandhurst, allocated annually, on the conditions that the candidate has passed his Matriculation examination, and is above seventeen years of age. A Matriculation certificate, also, of the Cape University is accepted in England as exempting medical students from a preliminary examination in Arts by the Royal College of Surgeons, the Royal College of Physicians, and the General Council of Medical Education. It should be added that since the governorship of Sir Bartle Frere there have been occasional nominations to naval cadetships from the Cape.

(25) With regard to another and not unimportant matter in school-training, viz., sports and pastimes, it may be remarked that they are kept up with unabated ardour in the Cape Colony and South Africa generally. The climate is singularly favourable for cricket, which it is possible to play almost all the year round, and, although there is no green sward comparable with that of old England, still a pitch can always be provided by artificial means. The enthusiasm over such a match as 'Mother Country' against 'Colonial-born' is as thrilling as in one of the most exciting contests on the historic Lord's ground. For all outdoor games the Cape is singularly fitted, and it is seldom oppressively hot. It has often been suggested, with a great show of facts and reasons, that upon English lads with somewhat consumptive tendencies the school life in South Africa,

if they go out soon enough, would exercise a most marvellous and recuperative influence. The air is in the first place most beneficial, and outdoor exercises are indulged in at a far less risk than in England.

Those zymotic diseases which occasionally rage in English schools are practically unknown at the Cape. As a signal proof of the general salubrity of the Cape climate and its efficacy in removing constitutional weaknesses, it may be mentioned that many men now occupying high official and other responsible positions in the colony came out at an early age to the Cape in search of health.

(26) Theoretically, the Cape system of education lies before us as a somewhat symmetrical and complete system which has tried to combine many and conflicting elements. As may be expected, there have been many practical difficulties in the way. The late Inspector General, Mr. Donald Ross, in his able report (1883) has observed: 'An elaborate system is always an expensive system, and it could easily be shown upon examples and general comparison that, as mapped out, the Colonial system, however much it might develop, would always be more expensive; as it is much more complicated and in idea much higher than the system of England and Scotland, which works on the same lines. South Africa has much in common with Scotland, in the national forms of religion and in the character of a large section of the people; yet the system I find here is radically different from that in whose administration I was engaged. The great difference is, that here a lofty ideal is held up before the country, and that pupils are made to rush after this ideal, whereas, in Germany and Scotland, the authorities recognise facts: the pupils begin at the foundation; thoroughness is insisted upon at the outset; actual progress and proficiency are made the test

of advance; the plan is simple and the curriculum is limited, progressive, and adapted to circumstances. The programme of even the best elementary school in England, Scotland, or Germany, is modest compared to what I have frequently seen here.' It is probable, however, that, in course of time, necessary reforms will be introduced into the Cape system, and a more rational view taken of the requirements of a progressive syllabus. The large support given to private schools proves that the system is not altogether in keeping with the wishes of the people. The multiplication of mission schools is not entirely a proof of progress, as a few good educational centres are stronger in their collective force for good than scattered outposts in many places. It is undoubtedly true that natives are trained and managed best at such large centres as Lovedale or Blythswood. In course of time, and upon due reflection, a sounding and pretentious syllabus will carry with it its own refutation. Meanwhile, the educational machinery has been set in motion, and, in a country at one time singularly apathetic and retrogressive, has awakened public attention and a certain amount of zeal.

(27) The best professional openings in the Cape Colony and South Africa generally are for doctors, surveyors, and lawyers. There is no medical degree given at the Cape, and Cape students generally go to Edinburgh or Vienna to gain their diplomas. For surveyors, who will probably find employment in South Africa for some time to come, there is an examination by the Cape University, involving a great deal of special preparation. For lawyers there are also special examinations, and this profession is termed the 'side-bar' at the Cape, in contradistinction to that of the barrister. An English barrister is admitted to practise at the Cape, and takes precedence according to the date at which he has been

called. For the colonial-born barristers there is a public examination in Law and Jurisprudence, including (1) Roman Law, in which such a work as the 'Institutes of Justinian' is the subject of examination; (2) Dutch Law, in which such books as Van der Linden's 'Institutes' and Grotius' 'Introduction to Dutch Jurisprudence' are required; (3) English Law, in which the 'Student's Blackstone' by Kerr, Creasy's 'Rise and Progress of the Constitution' are accepted authorities; (4) Notarial Practice, where Tennant's 'Notary's Manual' is used; (5) Colonial Law, which has to be studied from the series of Local Ordinances and Acts of Parliament passed from time to time by the Cape Government. It will be conjectured, therefore, that an English barrister coming to practice at the Cape will have to supplement his knowledge gained at home with a large amount of local knowledge. In addition to the subjects already enumerated, a Cape barrister is often expected to be well versed in Kaffir customs and Kaffir law. Occasionally, also, he has been called upon to express an opinion upon a most complicated ecclesiastical law-suit, turning upon the position and rights of the English Church in South Africa. Lastly, it must be remembered that the Cape Colony is a country where justice is pleaded in no less than three languages, English, Dutch, and Kaffir.

CHAPTER IX.

The System of Law. The Administration of Law. Land, and the Tenure and Sale of Land. Land Survey. Native Tenure. Language. Defence.

(1) *Law.* There is no class legislation within the borders of the Cape Colony, and, therefore, both the European and native populations enjoy equality in the eye of the law. Their legal status and the condition of their political privileges are the same.

The Cape Colony, having been subjected to more than one form of government in past years, is somewhat overloaded with law. As in Canada the custom of Paris has confused the law system of the Dominion, so at the Cape the law system inherited from the Dutch has made the colonial law difficult and complex. When, in 1652, the Cape became a possession of the Dutch East India Company, the law of Holland became the Colonial law, except where it was modified (1) by local ordinances, (2) by the Statutes of India. The laws of Holland, it must be always remembered, founded on the doctrines of Justinian and the precedents of Roman law, have been, nevertheless, much modified by their national customs. Questions of constitutional right and liberty, of community of property following upon marriage, intestate succession, and succession by ante-nuptial contract, and others, must be referred to the Batavian customs; but rights of dominion, servitude and pledge, contracts, and testaments, must be referred to the Roman law.

The combination is known as the *Roman-Dutch Law*, and it still prevails in the Colony. When the Colony was ceded to England, in 1815, no great changes in the form and administration of law took place. Improvements and reforms have been made, but substantially the common law of the country remains as before—that of Rome as adopted in the Netherlands.

(2) Amongst others, there are two large classes of legal questions upon which the colonial usage differs from that of England. (1) Those relating to community of property after marriage. (2) Those relating to inheritance. Judge Watermeyer has stated in a few words the colonial law on the first.

‘Marriage at the Cape of Good Hope, where the future spouses have not declared otherwise by ante-nuptial contract, effects a joint-ownership of all property, moveable and immoveable, of the husband and wife; whether in possession at the time of marriage, or subsequently acquired during its continuance. The property thus owned by the common estate is liable to the debts of the parties existing at the time of the marriage—to the debts contracted by the husband during the community, or by the wife, during the community, with the husband’s consent—and to debts contracted for the necessary charges of the marriage. . . . The dissolution of the community takes place by death, divorce a vinculo, or separation a mensâ et thoro. In certain cases of divorce, the courts possess power to decree forfeiture of the share possessed by the guilty spouse, either fully or partially.’

With regard to inheritance after the dissolution of this ‘nuptial partnership,’ the property belongs equally to the survivor and to the heirs of the deceased, in equal moieties, after a due adjustment of all debts and the payment of all charges, fitly borne by the community. If,

therefore, a husband dies, and the whole property, both of himself and his wife, amounts collectively to £40,000, half of this, i. e. £20,000, goes to his widow. The other half is divided equally amongst the children. At the death of the widow, her money is then taken and divided equally. There is, therefore, no law of entail in South Africa. As a consequence, properties have, in certain localities, become divided up, and the occupiers descended from the condition of being owners of lordly spaces to that of small peasant proprietors. It is not an uncommon thing to find many Dutch families of the same name living in separate river-valleys and constituting small clans in themselves. Early marriages and large families are the rule rather than the exception in South Africa; and, as the average size of a South African farm for grazing and pastoral purposes is 6,000 acres, a large extent of land has always been demanded by the young generations, and this demand may partially explain the inveterate habit of trekking in the country.

(3) *Administration of Law.* Under the old Dutch régime, before the Colony had extended far beyond the boundaries of the Cape Peninsula, the administration of justice was of a comparatively simple character. In 1685 the High Court of Justice, as reconstituted by the Lord of Mydrecht, an official sent out by the Chamber of XVII, consisted of (1) the Governor, as he was then called the Commander, (2) the Secunde, (3) the captain, (4) the lieutenant, (5) the chief salesman, (6) the garrison book-keeper, (7) the secretary of the council of policy, and (8) and (9) the two oldest burgher councillors. This was the Council of Policy over again, with the addition of the burgher councillors to give a slight popular element to it. The Fiscal appeared as public prosecutor, and so unpopular was this official, that he has be-

queathed his name to the butcher-bird or 'lanarius' of the Colony. This court remained as thus constituted for one hundred years¹. At the same time the Lord of Mydrecht reconstituted the same local court of the Heemraad at the new settlement of Stellenbosch, which had been constituted in 1682. This Heemraad or Home council consisted of four of the leading inhabitants, holding office for two years, but without receiving any salaries for their services. Their powers were slightly undefined at first, but their decisions appear to have been treated with respect. Two members retired annually, when the Court itself sent a list of four new names to the Council of Policy from which to select. The Lord of Mydrecht introduced an innovation by setting over these local magnates an official called a Landdrost, who was to have supervision of the Company's farms and out-stations, and to look after the Company's interests. He was to have two Europeans to assist him and to be provided with a horse and a slave. 'He was to receive £2 a month as salary and 16s. as maintenance allowance. In the Court of Landdrost and Heemraad civil cases under £2 1s. 8d. were to be decided finally, but, where amounts between that sum and £10 were in question, there was to be a right of appeal to the High Court of Justice. No case could be heard where the amount in dispute exceeded £10. The Court of Landdrost and Heemraad was to hold monthly sessions for the trial of civil cases. It was to preserve order, and was also to act as a district council, in which capacity it was to see to the repair of roads, the distribution of water, the destruction of noxious animals, and various other matters. It was to raise a revenue by erecting a mill to grind corn, by collecting annually a tax from the inhabitants, which was fixed by the Council of Policy

¹ Theal's '*History of South Africa*,' p. 280.

at 1s. 4½d. for every hundred sheep or twenty head of large cattle owned in the district, and by sundry small imposts. Further, it was to have power to compel the inhabitants to supply waggons, cattle, slaves, and their own labour, for public purposes¹. In the Orange Free State the chief magistrates of the various towns and villages, corresponding to the Civil Commissioners of the Cape Colony, are called Landdrosts, and throughout this Republic there are no less than seventeen Heemraadén, proving how the Dutch trekkers have adhered to their original form of local government. In the South African Republic the Landdrosts also exist, as in the Orange Free State. In the Cape Colony such a place as the 'Drostdy,' or Landdrost's abode, still survives as a sign of the original Dutch office.

(4) When the Cape was taken over by the British, in 1805, the constitution of the old Court remained unaltered for some time, the Court of Appeal being in criminal cases the Governor aided by a barrister or assessor. Little by little, the English system superseded the Dutch. In 1828, the first charter of the Supreme Court was issued, and four judges constituted this Court, including the judge of the Vice-admiralty Court,—a necessary accompaniment of British naval rule,—who exercised sole jurisdiction in prize cases. In 1834, by a second charter of justice, this was made a three-judge court; but afterwards, in 1855, again made a four-judge court. As the borders of the Colony increased and colonists pushed their way eastwards, it was found convenient to establish, in 1864, an Eastern Districts Court, exercising concurrent jurisdiction over the more distant parts of the Colony. Further, when Griqualand West and the Diamond Fields were incorporated (1880) within the Cape Colony, the High Court then existing was given con-

¹ Theal's 'History of South Africa,' p. 281.

current jurisdiction in Griqualand West with the Supreme Court. The judges of the Eastern Districts and the High Courts are puisne judges of the Supreme Court, which, as it now stands, consists of a Chief Justice and eight puisne judges. This Supreme Court is a Court of Appeal from all decisions, civil and criminal, in all Circuit Courts and Magistrates' Courts, and in the Eastern Districts Court and the High Court of Griqualand West. It is the highest tribunal in the land and holds its sittings at Capetown, embodying its judgments in a series of important cases, which must be regarded as the legal treasury of the Colony. Ever since the Supreme Court has been established there has been an appeal from it to the Privy Council at home. This appeal has rarely been resorted to, except perhaps in the case of the ecclesiastical tribunal. In appeals on matters of Church discipline and Church property, South Africa, since the famous case of 'Gray versus Long,' has been more conspicuous than any other Colony.

(5) The ordinary administration of justice lies with the representatives of the State—the Resident Magistrates of the district. Occasionally these officers have an extremely wide jurisdiction, as far as territory is concerned, and hold what are called Periodical Courts at out-stations. In the early days of British occupation, Circuits were established by Lord Caledon which embraced the whole Colony. Itinerant justice was the rule in those days, and the Circuits were not completed over vast areas without much discomfort and many travelling adventures of a thrilling description. The Circuit of the Colony took three or four months, and two justices went round once a year. Subsequently these Circuits were taken twice a year, and were conducted by one judge going the Long Circuit, which embraced the wastes of the great Karroo and the Midland and Eastern districts,

and another judge going the less tedious Circuit of the Western and North-western parts of the Colony. In 1864, when the Eastern Districts Court was established, the Colony was divided, naturally, into an Eastern and Western Circuit. * Each of these Circuits is completed twice a year. It may be observed that in the days of the Dutch East India Company there was no adequate attempt made to dispense justice in the wilds of South Africa. The Trekkers were a law unto themselves, like the Cyclopes of old. Justice, in such a state of society, could neither be asked for nor obtained. Andrew Sparrmann the Swedish naturalist, Barrow, and many other travellers in the interior, have left abundant records of the insecurity of life and property at the Cape, arising very often from refugee bands of escaped slaves and the conflict between blacks and whites. There was absolutely no official effort made to restrain outrage, repress crime, and introduce law and order in districts even moderately distant from Capetown. Law and the administration of law came in with the advent of the British to the Cape.

(6) *Land.* The whole occupied area of the Cape Colony has been roughly computed at 80,000,000 acres. Of this vast amount, there were under cultivation at the time of the 1875 census no more than 548,000 acres, the holdings being under 20,000¹. According to a recent Divisional Council valuation, the fixed property of the Colony was valued at £37,706,000, of which the Cape district contributed £4,900,000, Port Elizabeth £1,789,000, Kimberley £1,400,000, Cradock £1,089,000, Oudtshoorn £1,041,000, Paarl £1,037,000, Albany 1,009,000, showing roughly where the greatest wealth of the Cape Colony is collected. In the old Dutch *regime*, from 1652 to 1806, the settlement of the Cape with all its land belonged

¹ Appendix VII.

absolutely to the Dutch East India Company. The farms which settlers procured from time to time were held by them on loan-leases, that is to say, on such terms that the Company could revoke the title at any time they chose. The tenure, however, was generally considered secure¹. The buildings on the property were called the Opstal, and the sale and bequest of the Opstal were indirectly allowed by the Government by the imposition of a transfer duty of 2½ per cent. ; but this transaction made no alteration in the tenure. In the division of Tlilbagh loan-places were assigned with a so-called accroached legplek (lay place) in the adjacent districts of the Karroo. In 1714 taxes on loan-places were first levied. No leases or formal contracts were drawn up and entered into, the leases being simply entered in an 'Opgraaf' book. In the year 1732 the tenure of quit-rent was first introduced, but at the end of fifteen years it expired, and the Dutch Government had the right of resuming the land without paying any further compensation to the tenant than the value of the buildings and plantations. It was clear that the officials at Capetown were determined not to part with the smallest fraction of their exclusive rights over the soil, it being the policy of the Government generally to check colonisation and simply to keep the Cape as a military and commercial post. The grants that were made were hampered and encumbered with a number of vexatious limitations.

(7) With British occupation a new era was to dawn. In 1813 Governor Cradock issued a proclamation, in which the loan tenure is stigmatised as injurious to the interests of the country and is called an 'unworthy tenure,' unfitted to the growing prosperity of the Colony and only suited to the earliest institutions of the settlement. Further, it was argued that certainty of tenures was

¹ 'Bluebook Report of the Surveyor-General,' Capetown, 1876, p. 4.

required in order to give confidence that all improvements of the soil and the like should belong to the holder, and be exclusively secured to him, his heirs and executors¹. Sir John Cradock, therefore, issued an Ordinance by which the old loan-leases or revocable squatting licenses were converted into perpetual quit-rent. This movement in favour of freeholds and colonial independence must be regarded as one of the most important benefits following upon British occupation. By virtue of this Ordinance the Dutch colonists were lifted at once from a state of dependence and servitude, under a company, to be independent citizens and freeholders. Their legal and political status as members of the Colony was immeasurably advanced. Then, for the first time, the Dutch and French colonists could count upon their toils and labours having definite and permanent results. A freehold would descend securely from generation to generation, through father and son.

(8) It may be observed that in Canada, also, the British Government first introduced the idea of freeholds to the French colonists of Quebec and the valley of the St. Lawrence. For generations the land tenure, known as the Seigniorial tenure, burdened with certain duties and servitudes, had prevailed in the old French Colony, being part and parcel of the original Government system of colonisation². The British Government introduced into both countries a more manly and self-reliant system, and gave to the Habitans of Canada as well as to the Voertrekkers of the Cape Colony the right to call the land they cultivated and the houses they lived in their own scared and inalienable property. This is not one of the least of the blessings that have followed in the wake of British colonisation.

¹ 'Bluebook Report of the Surveyor-General,' Capetown, 1876, p. 20.

² Greswell's 'History of the Dominion of Canada,' p. 146.

(9) By Act 5 of 1870, a lessee of Crown lands in the Cape Colony was enabled to purchase the land he occupied at any time during the time of his lease, upon a quit-rent of one per cent. per annum upon the purchase money. For the annual payment, therefore, of £500, a lessee could hold property worth £50,000. To prove how land was thus acquired, the following are the statistics for three years—from 1876-7-8—of the leased lands which were converted into tenure upon perpetual quit-rent:—

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Acreage.</i>	<i>Price.</i>	<i>Quit-rent.</i>
1876 . . .	1,070,000 . . .	£80,000 . . .	£803
1877 . . .	562,000 . . .	£40,300 . . .	£403
1878 . . .	700,000 . . .	£50,137 . . .	£501

● In 1875 no less than 60,000,000 acres were held upon perpetual quit-rent. Out of 16,166 holders, 10,766 rented their lands on this system. The quit-rent itself is redeemable at twenty years' purchase. All waste lands within the Colony are to be disposed of on perpetual quit-rent for the highest annual rent obtainable at public auction, to be held at the magistrate's office in the district. Notice of auction is given describing the lands and giving the upset price. The highest bidder above the upset price is the purchaser. Where this price is not realised, the land may be let out on leases not exceeding three years. It is a notorious fact, however, that land in the Cape Colony has often been purchased at a ridiculously small upset price, and that spirited bidding has been checked by collusion of one or more parties. The tenure of all land is subject to the cost of keeping the roads in repair—a condition not very scrupulously fulfilled—and to the option of expropriation by the Government for public purposes, such as railways. The rights of the proprietor are not to extend to gold, silver, and precious stones. Such are, in outline, the

methods by which land has been acquired in the Cape Colony. The majority of the landowners are of Dutch and French extraction, and the way in which they have been instated in their rights has been of a peculiar and exceptional character. The gift has come from Great Britain, and the method was in the first instance British. Freeholds and franchise have been the two great watch-words of British progress. The Boer, who hugs himself in his broad acres at the Cape, should perforce recollect that the Government, which constituted him and all others as freeholders and landowners on a large scale, was the British Government. Under the Dutch *régime* there was no hope or prospect of a lordly domain of veldt, berg, or karroo.

(10) For the encouragement of agriculturists and small farmers, the Cape Government, by Act 4 of 1870, set aside certain agricultural areas not exceeding 500 acres. Any person could become the absolute possessor by offering a sum equal to ten years' annual rent, together with costs of survey and title. Such land, therefore, could be bought at 10s. or 12s. per acre. The upset rent is a shilling an acre. Such areas, if multiplied in certain productive parts of the Colony, would be invaluable to the agricultural emigrant or small farmer who possessed a little capital. This Act is the 'Licinian Rogation' of the Colony, and no man holding land under it can possess more than 500 acres. It is essential that a good deal of this area should be arable; the object being to create a class of small peasant proprietors. By another Act (1877) provision was made for smaller holders of 20 acres of arable ground and 180 acres of commonage. Up to the end of 1878 more than 33,000 acres were disposed of to small agriculturists and immigrants under these two Acts.

Unfortunately the Boer farmers do not co-operate

cordially with migration schemes. The Crown lands of certain districts are often at the mercy of a land-ring, who agree not to interfere with one another at the district auctions, and buy up the land, only giving the bare upset price for it. The principle of competition fails here. To the Boer, land, even though lying fallow and unproductive, seems the most tangible form of property, and he is an eager monopolist of it. It must be remembered also that the places where a small proprietorship would answer are few and far between, owing chiefly to the want of water and irrigation. It is possible that many irrigation areas might, by means of the expenditure of public moneys, be called into existence, and a number of thriving and populous centres be created. The storage of water is a great problem in South Africa, as it is in Australia.

(11) In the old days the Boer farmers marked out a block of land by the rough and ready system of riding for so many hours, first in one direction and then in another, to complete the circle or parallelogram as the case might be. The grazier's or rancher's boundary, therefore, would be the erratic line a horse could travel over for so many hours, an hour being taken generally as the time occupied in covering six miles. In the old days 6,000 acres was held to be the size of an ordinary farm, and the walking of the bounds would take three hours. This method of survey was very primitive, and the 'beacons' of loan-farms became utterly unreliable. An accurate re-survey has become a matter of the highest importance. The following is an account of the scientific attempts already made to survey the Cape Colony. (1) In 1752 the French astronomer, the Abbé la Caille, measured an arc of the meridian between Capetown and Piquetberg. (2) Sir John Barrow, secretary to Earl Macartney, contributed in 1797 to the survey of the south coast and

parts of the interior. (3) In 1846 Sir Thomas Maclear verified and extended La Caille's arc. He was Astronomer Royal at the Cape Observatory and received his instructions from the Admiralty¹. (4) In 1866 there was a trigonometrical survey of the Colony by Captain Bailey, from West to East from the Hex River near Worcester, to the Kei River in Kaffraria.

These surveys provided the means of mapping out the tracts of country covered by them.

The cost of survey has been great in South Africa, owing to the high prices of labour, provisions, and transport. It is calculated by the Surveyor-General of the Colony that £50 per square mile is a moderate estimate. The cost of surveying the 200,000 square miles, which is the area of the Colony, would be £10,000,000.

The work of land-surveying is being carried on under the direction of the Astronomer Royal of the Cape. The expenditure of the Surveyor-General's office was in 1884-5 £7,850. If present plans are carried out a trigonometrical survey will be made up to 31° 5' S., and the country accurately surveyed throughout from 34° 49' S., the latitude of the Land's-End of Africa.

(12) The transfer of land is an easy process at the Cape. In the Deeds Registry Office, extending as far back as 1685, during the Dutch occupation, there is a list of all titles to landed property and mortgages. A purchaser can refer to this registry and find out, in a very short space of time, any servitudes or encumbrances upon the land he wishes to buy. All conveyance, transfer or exchange, must be recorded at the Deeds Office. The expenses are a duty of four per cent. on the purchase amount paid in to the Colonial treasury. The whole expenses of transfer are not more than five per cent., and within a week the most involved estate

¹ 'Bluebook Report of the Surveyor-General,' 1876, pp. 101-2.

may change hands and the transaction be summed up on a couple of sheets of paper. There can be no possible mistake or fraud, as the Public Registrar and his staff do not allow property to change hands unless they are convinced that the title is clear and that there are no mortgages upon it in the debt registry. Such a simple and economical plan may well be copied in older countries. First and second mortgages are made and calculated upon the Divisional Council Rate, which is based on a low calculation.

(13) The hold of the original Hottentot clans upon the land of their birth was very precarious. They wandered here and there in search of pastures and fountains, and were generally at war with one another. No Hottentot kingdom ever existed in South Africa. It was quite different with the Kaffirs on the eastern and north-eastern borders. They came down as a nation of warriors, conquering as they went, and rendering implicit obedience to their paramount chief. This chief was absolute, and held unquestioned control over the lives and properties of his subjects, being in every sense a lord of the soil. When the Kaffir dynasties were broken up the tribal system was done away with, and a class of native freeholders was encouraged. Natives were encouraged to take up allotments, and in certain Fingo locations, such as Kamastone and Oxkraal, the Cape Government surveyed a large block of 120,000 acres and divided it amongst 1,779 grantees. Throughout the whole of the Transkei similar experiments were made. The idea of changing tenure in common into individual tenure was quite new to the native. He had also to pay a certain quit-rent and survey expenses over the process, which he could not quite understand. His life had for generations been a wandering unsettled life; his wealth, the wandering herds of oxen such as he might pilfer

from others or rear for himself. A freehold, as well as the franchise, was entirely strange to him. With the Zulu it was a tradition to be maintained loyally and without question that everything belonged to the King; his duty being to obey the King and render him homage and military service. The King symbolised the nation, and was regarded almost in the light of a divinity. The native tenure question on the frontier is an exceedingly difficult one, the disputes between natives and Europeans almost invariably turning upon a disputed boundary or some land question. If the chief is really the absolute owner of every acre of land upon which his subjects live, he has power to sign away his patrimony to any adventurous and unscrupulous European who may persuade him to do so. Concessions also and large tracts of land may be given to miners and farmers by a drunken chief, for a mere nominal sum, as happens in Swaziland and many places in South Africa. There is no popular check really strong enough in practice to control a savage king and save the tribe. Nevertheless, in theory if not always in fact, over such native areas of South Africa as that of the Matabili or Gazaland this check does exist. The Pitso is in such a country as Basutoland a strong popular assembly, and alienation would be almost impossible there. Nor is there a paramount chief strong enough to interfere with the Basuto heritage. Sir Charles Warren has thus spoken of Bechuanaland and the customs of the more rational and intelligent Bechuana in a paper read before the Royal Colonial Institute, after his return from his expedition¹:—

‘The lands are all tribal; so much so that even between many of the several distinct tribes no boundary line has ever been made, but it is well known to what

¹ ‘Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute,’ vol. xvii. p. 17.

tribe and to what family the lands belong, whether farms or cattle posts. These farms and posts are only held by these families by the will of the tribe, expressed in the public gatherings; and the chiefs themselves, even in combination with the councillors, have no power to grant land unless it is ratified by the voice of the people. Moreover, the chiefs and the people in public assemblies have no power to grant land unless ratified by the voice of the people¹.

(14) *Language.* From 1652 to 1806 the official language used at the Cape was Dutch. When the French Huguenots were introduced in 1690, stringent laws were passed by the Dutch to extirpate their language, and they so far succeeded that in a couple of generations it was completely lost. It had scarcely any influence in modifying the Dutch vocabulary, but the sudden exchange of one tongue for another by so large a proportion of the inhabitants as the refugees, was one of the causes which tended to break down the structure of the language of Holland and to substitute in its stead the ungrammatical Colonial Dutch now in vogue in the Colony². Religious services were held in Dutch only, and no other language was used in the courts of law or in any public business. We read in an account of 'A Voyage in Search of La Perouse' (1791-4), written by W. Labillardière, a Frenchman who stopped at the Cape on his way out to Australia, that he made a trip to Fransche Hoek, the home of the Huguenot settlers, to see their farms and to hear the familiar mother-tongue; but in this latter expectation he was disappointed. He writes: 'The names of these planters led us to hope that we were now amongst people with whom we could converse in our own language; but these Frenchmen by extraction, having been

¹ Appendix VIII.

² Theal's 'Compendium,' p. 91.

obliged to make use of the Dutch for so long a space, retained nothing of their mother-tongue excepting the family names.'

The French astronomer, the Abbé la Caille, who visited the Cape in 1752, refers in his journal to the condition of his fellow-countrymen, and notices the gradual extinction of the language amongst their children. He says: 'With respect to the refugees, they have preserved the French language and taught it their children; but the latter, partly because they trade with the Dutch and Germans, who speak the Dutch language, and have married or become connected with the Dutch and Germans, have not taught French to their children. There are no longer any of the old refugees of 1680-1690 at the Cape; only their children remain who speak French, and they are very old. I did not meet any person under forty years of age who spoke French, unless he had just arrived from France. I cannot, however, be sure that this is altogether general; but I have heard those who speak French say that in twenty years there would not be any one in Drakenstein who would know how to speak it.' Le Vaillant, who visited the Colony in 1780, says that only one old man understood French in the whole country. Such names as Ballot, Bernard, Berrange, Buissine, Conradie, Du Toit, Faure, Joubert, Jordan, Piton, Serrurier, Le Sueur, Visagie and many others of the best known in South Africa survive.

(15) It was a short-sighted policy to stamp out the French language, as the literature of France might perhaps have exercised a refining influence upon the manners and thought of the Colonists. As it was, they developed a patois known as 'Cape Dutch,' in which there was no written literature of any sort, and which became hopelessly corrupted by Hottentot idioms and vulgarised by the Hottentot phraseology. If language is truly the

instrument of thought, what indeed could be said for this Cape patois? The very nomenclature of places, animals, plants, and birds in Dutch South Africa shows an extremely low level of imagination and thought. It must be said, however, that great efforts have recently been made by Dutchmen to purify their language and to teach it in its best form.

After the British occupation English became the official language. Lord Charles Somerset (1821) endeavoured, by establishing English schools, to encourage the English tongue. Nearly every European colonist can now talk and understand English, although in the more remote parts of the Colony Cape Dutch is the medium of conversation. Even in the Free State and the Transvaal English is perhaps heard oftener than Dutch in the towns and cities. Until recently the language of debate in the Cape Parliament was English, but since 1882 the use of Dutch has been allowed. English however, as the language of commerce, business, and diplomacy, must gradually become the common language of the South African communities.

(16) *Native Tongues.* Nowhere in the world have such distinct races of men been found living together as in South Africa, and these races are represented by the most primitive and therefore the most instructive types of their kind. There are three strata; firstly, the Bantu type spoken by Kaffirs, Bechuana and Damara, each with a distinct language, defined by Dr. Bleek as an *euphonious, polysyllabic and prefix-pronominal language*. To explain the first term, *euphonious*, it is necessary to say that a principle of alliteration runs through the whole of the structure of the Kaffir language. This causes the frequent repetition of certain letters and particles in the same sentences, which promotes the euphony of the language and is called the *euphonic*

concord. In Davis' 'Grammar of the Kaffir Language' this euphonic concord is thus described :—

'The Kaffir language is distinguished by one peculiarity which immediately strikes a student whose views of language have been formed upon the examples afforded by the inflected languages of ancient and modern Europe. With the exception of a change of termination in the ablative case of the noun, and five changes of which the verb is susceptible in its principal tenses, the whole business of declension, conjugation, &c. is carried on by prefixes and by the changes which take place in the initial letters or syllables of words subject to grammatical government. By this principle of the languages there occurs the repetition of the same letter or letters in the commencement of several words in the same sentence. These letters or syllables are derived from the prefixes of the nouns, and occurring as they do frequently in the same sentence, according to the particular prefix of the noun which governs the sentence, a kind of alliteration is sustained by them, and in addition to the precision which they impart to the language, they promote its euphony¹.'

The Kaffir language is both rhythmical and musical, and is spoken with great emphasis and power by Kaffir orators. Oratory, indeed, is a well-known art amongst the natives, and all the devices of rhetoric, the modulation of the voice, gesticulation and impassioned appeal, are practised with great effect. The language abounds also in figure, trope, and proverb, freely and constantly used. The ox figures largely in their language and literature. This animal is the main source of their wealth, and has many names for all stages of its life and growth. The type of the ancient minstrel is represented by the singer of the *isipingo*, which is a chant in praise

¹ Davis' 'Grammar of the Kaffir Language,' p. 5.

of great chiefs (inkosi) and a celebration of their power. As the language abounds in concrete images and illustrations it is somewhat hard to interpret abstract ideas to them or the results of our complex thought. But as a proper vehicle for describing their savage life and the exciting episodes of the hunt or of the foray it cannot be surpassed. The accent is thrown generally on the penultimate. Isandlwāna, which is a diminutive and means the field of 'the little hand,' is pronounced with great emphasis on the penultimate, almost to the extinction of the other syllables. The diminutive suffix is ana, as in imvu 'a sheep,' imvana 'a lamb.'

(17) It must be remembered that the term Kaffir or Cafre was adopted by the Portuguese from the Arabs of the west coast of Africa, and means 'unbelievers,' being applied to natives both on the east and west coast indiscriminately. With us the word has undergone the process of specialisation, and is rather loosely used to denote the tribes with which we have been brought into contact on the eastern frontiers. From various passages of the early Portuguese explorers it would seem that the language of Congo on the west formerly extended from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean on the east. Vasco da Gama found that he could communicate with the Cafres of the east coast by means of a 'Cafre of Guine'.¹ It must be noticed also that the Kaffirs, within recent times, have adopted the disagreeable clicks of the Hot-tentots and Bushmen.

With regard to the threefold division of the *Kaffirs*, the *Bechuana* and *Damara*, mentioned by Dr. Bleek, it must be observed that the Kaffir dialect is confined to the Amaxosa, Abatembu, Amapondolo, and Amazulu tribes; extending from the Great Fish River as far as Delagoa Bay. It was also the dialect of the small

¹ 'Voyages of Vasco da Gama,' Hakluyt, p. 79.

portion of the Amazulu, which, under the great chief Moselekatsi, ravaged the vast plains of South Central Africa about the beginning of this century. The *Bechuana* dialect is spoken chiefly throughout the interior regions to the east of the Kalahari Desert, and the *Damara* on the west of the Kalahari Desert. A kindred tongue is spoken all through South Central Africa and in Congo, Angola, and Loango, as far as the Gaboon River, and among the M'Pongwe tribes. It is a lingua franca extending over immense areas¹. Indeed, it may be said that the natives of Delagoa Bay, the *Makooa* tribes, extending from 17° to 4° South latitude, the *Swahili* natives, who dwell beyond the Makooa as far as 2° North latitude, the *Monjon*, who are supposed to be so far in the interior as two or three months' journey from Mozambique, speak languages only slightly different from the *Bechuana* used near the Cape Colony. The significance of this fact is very great. In the future, supposing that trained Kaffirs are sent northwards from our Colonies as pioneers, catechists or teachers under British rule, they may, without difficulty, converse with kindred races speaking a kindred tongue over immense regions extending to the very heart of Africa. To a still greater extent this lingua franca will be useful to the European Colonist who has mastered the complexities of the native Kaffir dialects within the borders of the English Colonies themselves.

(18) Dr. Bleek also draws our attention to a second great division of South African languages, namely, that spoken by the Hottentots, which he describes as a *clicking, monosyllabic and sex-denoting language*; spoken by a race pastoral in their habits, occasionally polygamous, organised in tribes under chiefs, originally worshipping the moon and all the hosts of heaven, possessing some

¹ Preface to Davis' 'Kaffir Grammar,' p. vi.

poetical ideas, and having a traditionary literature full of myths and fables, with a decimal system of counting which is of easier application than the Bantû. They are certainly the lowest known representatives of those nations possessing sex-denoting languages which fill North Africa, Europe, and part of Asia, and among which are found the most highly cultivated nations on earth.

Lastly, there are the Bushmen speaking only dialects of one harsh *clicking and guttural monosyllabic language of the genderless class*, phonetically more primitive even than that of the Hottentots; a hunting nation, worshippers of the moon, generally strictly monogamous, poetical in their ideas, with an extensive folk-lore, mostly of a mythological character and resembling in this the Hottentots, but destitute of any numerals beyond the third¹.

(19) There are a large number of tales and legends in the Bushman and Hottentot language which throw light upon the antecedents of these South African aborigines. Dr. Bleek has remarked upon 'a striking similarity between the Hottentot signs of gender and those of the Coptic language,' and has re-echoed a statement of the Syro-Egyptian Society 'that the signs of gender were almost identical in the Namaqua and the Egyptian, and the feminine affix might be regarded as being the same in all three, Namaqua, Galla, and old Egyptian².' The Hottentot fables themselves are looked upon by the same authority as the oldest and most primitive literary remains of the old mother-tongue of the sex-denoting nations. The language itself, from an archæological point of view, is extremely interesting, and provides us with a great deal of internal evidence upon the subject of remote African history, which is so dark a book to

¹ 'Folk-lore Journal,' vol. ii. Part 1. p. 2, Capetown.

² Preface to 'Hottentot Fables and Tales,' by Dr. Bleek, p. xix.

read. There was no doubt in Dr. Bleek's mind that not only the Coptic, but also the Semitic and all other languages of Africa, as Berber, the Galla dialect and others, in which the distinction of the masculine and feminine gender pervades the whole grammar, were of common origin¹.

The sun and moon, the stars of heaven, the animals of the veldt, the lion, jackal, baboon, tortoise, the snake, the zebra, all figure in their primitive literature. Here and there, in out-of-the-way caves, the stranger may see the rough wall-paintings of the Bushmen, chiefly of men and animals. The tall giraffe, the springbok, the koodoo, the rhinoceros, and ostrich can all be clearly identified; and some would recognise in a one-horned animal, occasionally portrayed in profile, the legendary figure of the unicorn.

(20) The outspread heavens were to these primitive people the great playground of their fancy and imagination. The two pointers of the Southern Cross were said, originally, to have been men, and the Bushmen made a division of the stars into night stars and dawn stars. The Dawn's heart is the star Jupiter, who has a daughter identified with some bright fixed star on the track of Jupiter's path through the heavens. Her name is the Dawn's heart Child, and her relation to her father is somewhat mysterious. He calls her 'my heart,' and swallows her and then walks the heavens alone. The sun was, in the belief of the Bushmen, originally a man from whose armpit brightness came. He lived formerly on the earth, but he only gave light round his own house. Some children, we are told, belonging to the first Bushmen, who preceded the flat Bushmen (here we get a hint of a race of men living before the present aborigines), were therefore sent to throw the sleeping sun into the

¹ Preface to '*Hottentot Fables and Tales*,' by Dr. Bleek, p. xviii.

sky. Since then he shines over all the world. Dr. Bleek informs us that the Bushmen worshipped more particularly the Canopus, the well-known Bushman rice-star, and their worship was expressed in a distinct form of prayer. Nor were they free from a kind of animal worship, or at any rate an adoration which was sufficient to elevate animals into the company of the stars. We learn that Aldebaran was personified by them as the male, Alpha Leonis as the female hartebeest. Procyon was with them the male Eland, Castor and Pollux the Eland's wives; the Steenbok represented the clouds of Magellan; the male tortoise, on a stick, Orion's sword, and three female tortoises Orion's belt. This is the classification of Dr. Bleek and of Sir Thomas Maclear, late Astronomer Royal at Capetown¹. It is clear that with the gradual extinction of the pure Bushman tribes, and with the amalgamation of the Hottentots amongst the other elements of South Africa, the language, lore, and traditions of these primitive people will die out entirely and be preserved only in the treatises and publications of philologists to whom they are chiefly interesting.

(21) It may be noticed that the Malay population of Capetown, brought over many generations ago by the Dutch East India Company, have long since lost their language, although they adhere very tenaciously to their Mohammedan creed, and still make pilgrimages to Mecca and worship at the Kaabah or Holy House. In Natal the Bombay coolies and Indian cultivators add another, although rather migratory element to the population of South Africa. The Arab trader along the east coast of Africa has been there from time immemorial. It is clear that to the philologist and anthropologist the strange amalgam of races in South Africa affords a most interesting study. Probably one of the results of an

¹ 'Cape Quarterly Review,' October, 1881, p. 54.

effective British occupation will be an increased and more exact knowledge of the former dispersion of races by information gathered from the form and structure of the different languages, a comparison of their dialectical differences and the study of their oral traditions and customs.

(22) *The Defence Forces.* The Cape Colonists have three lines of defence in case of war: (1) the permanent forces, (2) the Volunteers, (3) the Burghers. In the Basutò war the Volunteers went to the front and did good work, though this war was unsuccessful and saddled the Colony with a very heavy debt. Set side by side with the responsibilities they may incur, the permanent forces of the Cape are small. The following is a list of the forces in the Cape Colony as given by Colonel F. J. Owen, R.A. :—

Permanent.

Cape Mounted Rifles	819
Police	704

Partially paid.

Cavalry	71
Field Artillery	364
Engineers	249
Mounted Rifles	539
Infantry	2,485
		<hr/>
		5,231 ¹
		<hr/>

In the estimates for the year 1889-90 a vote of £146,706 was given for Colonial defence. Of this sum £8,931 was appropriated for departmental expenses, £108,465 to the Cape Mounted Rifles, £21,310 to Volunteers, and £8,000 for the defence of Table Bay. In

¹ 'Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute,' vol. xxi. p. 305.

1891-2 the vote has increased to £147,092. With regard to Coast defence it will be seen that, although the Cape Colony is a Maritime State, nearly the whole cost falls upon England. Within very recent times the harbour of Simon's Bay and the batteries in the vicinity of Table Bay have been greatly strengthened, and positions which were once at the mercy of a strong fleet made tolerably secure. The Colonists have taken upon themselves the expense of erecting the batteries and of providing gunners for the artillery, the British Government providing guns and ammunition. At the Colonial Conference in 1887, it was the Dutch leader at the Cape, Mr. J. Hofmeyr, who propounded to the representatives of the Colonies a scheme for Imperial Defence based upon a differential duty levied at the ports of the Empire¹.

(23) With regard to the general question of defence, it must be remembered that at the Cape, as in Canada, military services are required from every citizen as part of his natural obligations as 'a member of the State.' The old Burgher law was Conscription for all between seventeen and sixty. It was brought about in the first place by the necessity of organising Commandoes under Landdrosts against the native races on the border. This principle is still active in the Dutch Republics, and exists also, although in a somewhat dormant manner, in the Cape Colony. During the Basuto war the late Sir Bartle Frere endeavoured to organise the system more completely, and to bring the three lines of defence into working order.

The Governments of South Africa possess a cheap and effective auxiliary to their regular forces in the native levies, corps of guides, and drivers and camp followers, recruited from Hottentots and Kaffirs. In times past

¹ Appendix IX.

the natives have done good service in our frontier wars. As scouts the natives, from their knowledge of the country, are simply invaluable. Their sight is keen, their hardihood great, and their pluck unquestioned. In the Zulu war loyals were found very useful, and it was well known that Chief Dunn's contingent was of especial service to Lord Chelmsford. Lord Wolseley found the aid of the Swazie Contingent very useful in the Sekukuni Campaign, and on the borders of the Cape Colony itself the Fingoe levies formed a well-known body of auxiliaries. The native forces are capable of development to any extent, as infantry or cavalry, in South Africa.

CHAPTER X.

Industries, Wealth, Imports and Exports, Revenue, Expenditure, Public Debt, Railways, Telegraph, Post Office, Trade, Shipping, Summary.

(1) The development of the wealth and natural resources of the Cape Colony and the adjoining settlements has always taken place in some extraordinary and unexpected manner within the last fifty years; so much so, in fact, that Cape Colonists have in times of financial depression consoled themselves with the well-known Micawber reflection that 'something would turn up,' and they have not been disappointed. For many years the wealth of South Africa consisted mainly in the flocks and herds

of the Boers, in the thousands of wild animals which roamed over its plains, and, nearer the Cape Peninsula, in the fruitful vineyards of the Cape vignerons. Horns and hides, wool and wine, were the usual articles of export to other countries. But just about the forties of the present century this stagnant state of affairs was destined to be changed. In 1843 a most unexpected mine of wealth was discovered on the south-west coast of Africa, which drew attention to the country and led to further developments. A sea-captain, named Morrell, had made known from his observations the existence of a rainless region in this part of the world, where there were some small islands haunted by myriads of sea-fowl. A Liverpool merchant, hearing of it, sent three vessels in search of them, one of which succeeded in chancing upon the Island of Ichaboe, and finding there vast quantities of guano. Up to this point the Peruvian Islands had been the sole source of this wealth, which was then selling at £9 5s. per ton in the English market. This Island of Ichaboe, in reality a rock less than a mile in circumference, the highest point of which was less than sixty feet, was found to have a deposit of guano forty feet in depth on one side and ten feet deep on the other. Other islands, also, were discovered, although of less value. The quantity of guano that entered the English market from these deposits was calculated to be 300,000 tons, valued at £2,100,000, at the rate of £7 per ton. Of this extraordinary find it has been said: 'At that time Africa was of the greatest benefit to the shipping interest of England. In 1843 it was most depressed, and ships were lying idle and filling the docks all over the country; but the guano traffic which arose in Africa revived that trade, and thousands of ship-owners were made rich¹.' At one time it was said that three hundred vessels were

¹ 'Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute,' vol. xviii. p. 240.

lying at once in the Channel of Ichaboe, and by February, 1845, the whole of the deposit was removed. Such was the strange treasure island that gave to South Africa the first impulse towards prosperity, for, although the wealth of guano was taken away and benefited England, it turned the attention of the world to the Cape, and induced people to examine its resources more narrowly.

(2) Facing the guano islands lay a low and, to all appearance, most dry and inhospitable coast-line, the main features of which have been already described. For all purposes of colonisation Namaqualand, both pastoral and agricultural, must have appeared absolutely useless; yet a closer examination proved that the rocks of this waterless land abounded in rich deposits of copper ore. As early as 1683 an old Dutchman named Simon van der Stell had explored Namaqualand for mineral, and left his name cut deep into the hard gneiss rock which formed the entrance to a small shaft; but the attention of Englishmen was not turned seriously to this coast until 1842-3¹. At that time ore was taken from Angra Pequena, a small cove which has since fallen into the possession of the Germans. The first systematic search for copper was made at Springbokfontein, and for some time afterwards bubble companies were formed which brought about a certain amount of ruin and disaster in their wake. Presently the industry assumed a settled phase, and fresh mines being discovered at O'okiep near Springbokfontein, a railway was constructed, and communication opened up with the west coast through Port Nolloth, ninety miles distant. The ores are of very rich quality, and, after classification and dressing, they average an assay of about 32 per cent.² The following is a

¹ 'Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute,' vol. xviii. p. 240.

² 'Argus Annual,' 1890, p. 485.

return showing the export of copper ore in 1864-5, and in 1886-7-8 and 1890 :—

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Quantity.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
1864	4,323 tons . . .	£102,602
1865	4,500 „ . . .	£118,297
1886	28,429 „ . . .	£559,328
1887	28,264 „ . . .	£577,053
1888	40,023 „ . . .	£856,803
1890	32,674 „ . . .	£694,356

(3) The next development was that of the Diamond Fields, an account of which has already been given in the description of Kimberley and the history of Griqualand West. Here, too, a dry and barren wilderness, apparently useful for none of the ordinary uses of mankind, despised by the Colonists, and purchasable for a few oxen or rix-dollars, proved a veritable Eldorado. In addition to the diamond mines already worked there are said to be others discovered recently in the vicinity¹. Should this prove to be the case, the prosperity of the trade must be even greater than it is at present. Gold has not been discovered in large or paying quantities in the Cape Colony, the only mines being those of the Knysna Gold Fields at the extreme south of the Colony, near the large forests, and recently Prince Albert. For the year ending December 31, 1888, the output was 448 oz. The Knysna Gold Field is estimated at 42 square miles². It would appear that the most paying gold reefs are further north, in the Transvaal, under which heading an account of them is given, and in Mashonaland. The coal seams of the Cape Colony lie at Cyphergat, Molteno, and Fair View in the Albert division, and at Indwe in the Wodehouse division. The produce of these mines in 1890 was 23,021 tons³. The Indwe coal mine, situated about 60 miles to

¹ Appendix X.

² 'Proceedings of Royal Colonial Institute,' vol. xviii.

³ 'Cape of Good Hope Statistical Register,' p. 219.

the north-east of Queenstown, is considered the centre of the coal area. It has been calculated that this area is 20,000 acres, representing eighty millions of tons. Moreover, it is ascertained that coal seams of a profitable kind exist in the Quathlamba and Stormberg spurs, reaching northwards from Kaffraria to the north of Natal. The heading of the Indwe Coal Mine is at an elevation of 5,000 feet above the level of the sea. Professor Rupert Jones thus describes the general position of the Coal Mines. 'The western outcrop of these carboniferous strata extends from near Burghersdorp towards Aliwal North, the vicinity of Bloemfontein, Heidelberg, and Lake Chrissie. Thence south-eastward by Lake Chrissie to Newcastle and Ladysmith in Natal, and along the east foot of the Drakensburg to the Stormberg above Queenstown¹.' The coal is used for some of the Colonial Railways, and, although it is not so good as Merthyr Steam Coal, it answers the purpose and effects a great saving in the working of the Government Railways. When the coal area of the Colony is brought into direct communication with the railway system of the Colony a still further economy will ensue. By the time Cardiff coal reaches the port of East London it costs £2 10s. a ton. In the Stormberg the work of mining ought also to be much cheaper than it is in England, as the strata lie high up and can easily be tapped by 'incline' railways. This is a very different process from digging deep down into the bowels of the earth and hauling the coal up from below by means of expensive machinery. The inferiority of the Cape coal arises from the large amount of ash left after burning, which, in a very hot furnace, forms itself into a tough slag.

(4) In Griqualand West Crocidolite or Asbestos has been discovered, and is an article of export. In 1890

¹ 'Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute,' vol. xviii. p. 220.

the value of the amount exported was 1945 lbs., with a value of £31. 'The Crocidolite, both the true blue and the changed yellow, are seams of the altered rock which have taken on a fibrous, instead of a solid condition, with the fibres at right angles to the enclosing planes¹.'

(5) There is one natural and inexhaustible industry which exists at the Cape, but is, up to the present time, little developed—and that is the sea-fishing. The Cape waters abound in an extraordinary variety of edible fish, the neighbouring banks of Agulhas being a favourite breeding place for immense shoals. A large number are caught and used for local consumption, but some, especially the fish called the snoek, are salted and cured for exportation. In 1888 the amount of dried fish exported reached the total of 5,058,121 lbs., of which 4,939,536 lbs. went to Mauritius. The fishing industry is left mainly to the Malay and Hottentot population at Capetown, and at certain places along the south coast. It can, however, be developed in many ways. 'It is certain that much more can be made out of the Cape oysters and soles, both of which are extremely good. Along Plettenberg Bay the former abound, and possibly the Knysna lagoon might be utilised as an oyster breeding place, and prove to be as valuable as the basin of Arcachon in France. The dried bladder of the "kabeljauw" (*Sciaena hololepidota*) can be used by Cape vigneron instead of isinglass for clarifying wines; and isinglass is a most useful article of commerce. The coarse Cape sponges are also useful; and the Cape lobster (*Palinurus Lalandii*) is easily caught in vast numbers all the year round, attaining a length of thirteen inches and a breadth of nearly five inches. The tinning industry might surely be developed here, and the delicate flesh of the half-

¹ 'Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute,' vol. xviii. p. 223, and 'The Mining Journal,' July 17, 1886.

grown crustacea preserved as a luxury for local or foreign consumption¹. The whale and seal have long since ceased to haunt the coasts of South Africa in profitable numbers, being driven far to the southward.

(6) The first and most permanent source of wealth in a country is agriculture in all its branches. Mining operations, effective as they are in giving an impulse to immigration and a spur to trade, must always be considered as subsidiary to the cultivation of the soil and the growing of all kinds of farm and garden produce. The Cape Colony began as an agricultural and pastoral Colony. Vines were introduced by Jan van Riebeeck, the first Commander of the Cape; and Simon van der Stell supplemented these with a large number of varieties from France, Germany, Spain, and Persia². The French Huguenot refugees of 1680-90 brought with them also many slips of the old trees from their native country. Simon van der Stell was a noted horticulturist, and made experiments with rice, cassava, hops, and olives, and many varieties of trees, both from Europe and India. The zeal of the old Dutch officials in gardening and tree-planting seems to have died out in the eighteenth century, and the more scientific and practical study of agriculture in all its branches belongs to comparatively recent times. The Agricultural Shows are a new feature of Cape life, and are doing much good in the country districts. The South African farmer, who has in past times been negligent and lazy, has many problems before him to meet which he requires especial knowledge. He has to be more careful in his selection of breeding animals, he has to guard himself by stringent legislation against the introduction and spread of scab; he has to fence his land and, as far as possible, avoid the un-

¹ 'Blackwood's Magazine,' November, 1890. Paper by W. Greswell.

² Theal's 'History of South Africa,' p. 327.

wholesome and inconvenient process of 'kraaling' his flocks every night ; he has to improve his sheep-runs by sowing useful plants, and take care that the veldt is not trodden out and depastured too freely. The viticulturist now has to take special precaution to meet the ravages of the Phylloxera, a most noxious and destructive insect. It has recently been discovered that American vines are strong and hardy enough to resist the attacks of the Phylloxera. Of these the kind known as the *Riparia* is considered to be the best, and already experiments with it are being made in various parts of the Colony. It is proposed also to send viticulturists from the Cape Colony to study French methods of treating the vine in the schools of Montpellier, Lyons, and Bordeaux, and in course of time a most valuable industry, which has seemed lately to be on the wane at the Cape, may be revived and brought to a state of prosperity. Viticulture is still a leading industry in the Cape Colony, but the wine and brandy made is generally used for native consumption, and is of an inferior quality. The vine districts are seen at their best in the vicinity of Capetown, at the well-known farm of High Constantia, renowned for its Pontac, and in the sunny slopes of the Paarl. According to the approximate Harvest Results (1888-1889) contained in the Statistical Register of the Cape of Good Hope, the Paarl District and Drakenstein Mountains head the list with 23,243,000 vine-stocks out of a grand total of 69,698,085 in the whole Colony. Stellenbosch had 14,616,000, Worcester 5,415,000, Robertson 4,591,000, Malmesbury 4,571,000, and Cape 3,000,000. A reference to the map will show that the wine industry is principally a western industry, conducted by vigneron of French and Dutch extraction. The viticulturist interest is, therefore, an important factor in the Cape constituencies, and is as strong, relatively, as the beer interest in England. Of this industry it may be

said that it is capable of indefinite expansion, especially along the Tulbagh valley, and at the same time it may be added, of indefinite improvement. 'Cape Smoke' is brandy of the worst kind, and has given an evil name to Cape spirits generally. It is a sign of the robustness and vitality of the indigenous races of South Africa that they have not yet been exterminated by Cape Smoke. More stringent measures than have ever yet been devised by the Cape legislature are now being enacted to regulate the sale of spirits and to ensure its purity.

(7) It was the Cape Colony which, during Governor King's term of office in New South Wales (1802), gave to the half-starved emigrants at Sydney a very timely supply of flour and provisions in the Sirius. All this has long since been reversed, and from Port Adelaide, in the Colony of South Australia, wheat has been shipped in large quantities to the Cape. As may be gathered from an examination of the climate and rainfall of South Africa, the country is not well adapted for wheat-growing in the Northern and Midland Provinces. In many parts the rains come at the wrong time of the year for ploughing, and are too violent in their action. The Great Karroo is chiefly useful for pastoral purposes. In the midlands protracted droughts make ploughing absolutely impossible, and artificial irrigation alone can remedy this natural defect. Judging from the most recent statistical returns, the best wheat and barley areas are found in the South-west and the North-east Provinces.

Out of an estimated total of 3,811,000 bushels, the Division of Malmesbury came first in 1888-9 with a yield of 401,000 bushels, and Wodehouse next with 315,000. Wheat-growing is fairly distributed over the whole Colony, being an industry of the extreme eastern

as well as the western divisions. In this respect it differs from the wine industry. Still, as a wheat-growing country, neither the Cape Colony nor the adjoining countries can ever hope to compete with the Australasian and North American Colonies, unless, indeed, large areas are irrigated. Cape wheat is considered extremely hard and good, and there is no difficulty in harvesting it; but the average yield per acre is trifling compared with the Canadian wheat-fields, which along the Red River and Assiniboine valleys sometimes yield fifty to sixty bushels per acre. In the Cape Colony fifteen bushels are considered good, and sometimes the farmer is satisfied with ten or even five bushels per acre. Before the British occupation the ways of the Dutch Boer were very primitive. A great unwieldy plough, with only one handle, was forced through the land by the united strength of eight or ten oxen, and in the place of a harrow, a large bush was used¹. Even now primitive threshing-floors can be seen where the corn was trampled out by oxen and horses. Lord Macartney, the British Governor (1799), brought out from England an experienced agriculturist, Mr. Duckett, and caused a set of the very best English farm utensils to be used, and a model farm to be established. To a great extent this enlightened policy was thrown away upon the Boers, upon whom the curse of slavery had settled. In the words of Mr. Theal: 'The farmer, too proud and too indolent to labour himself, entrusted the whole work of his farm to his slaves and Hottentots; and they having no interest in that which could not benefit them, performed everything in a careless makeshift manner².' The Agricultural Society which existed in Lord Macartney's time, did little or nothing to help the farmer. Things are very different now, and South African farmers buy freely

¹ Theal's 'Compendium,' p. 161.

² Ibid. p. 162.

the best ploughs and reaping machines of British and American make, but the Colony has still largely to import corn and flour and consumes a very dear loaf.

In 1888, 8,238,000 lbs. of wheat and 2,441,000 lbs. of flour were imported, chiefly from South Australia. The selling price of wheat (1888) in the Cape, Stellenbosch, Alexandria, Piquetberg, Worcester, was six shillings a bushel, in Caledon six shillings and sixpence, in Calvinia eight shillings. In 1890 the prices were considerably higher all round¹. As a rule wheat is cheaper and more plentiful in the East and North-east Provinces.

(8) To the Cape colonist the ox has been invaluable as a beast of burthen. What a canoe or sleigh has been to a North American colonist, an ox-waggon has been to a South African voertrekker or pioneer. Before the days of railways the oxen did almost all the transport, and the town of Kimberley was for many years supplied with food, furniture, machinery, and material of all kinds drawn across river and mountain by labouring spans or yokes of oxen. The best cattle-rearing districts are in the north-east portion, where horses also thrive best. Cattle in this country are subject to a very fatal disease known as the lung sickness, and care has often to be taken in travelling from one part of the Colony to the other, that oxen accustomed to what is called the sweet veldt, are not taken through the sour veldt country. The change of veldt often causes a great mortality.

(9) In former times the Cape furnished a large number of cavalry remounts to the Indian Government; the breed of Cape horses being remarkable for their hardihood and endurance. Their peculiar character has been preserved by the importation of Arab sires from the north through Zanzibar. Lord Charles Somerset (1814-

¹ Appendix XI. Imports of Cereals.

1822), when Governor of the Cape Colony, encouraged the breed of horses, and set apart large districts in the Hantam and Cedarberg mountains for horse-breeding. It is a well-known fact that the Cape horses are subject to a most peculiar and virulent disease which attacks and carries them off in a very short space of time, but the best places for them are not the low-lying plains or valleys, but the high grassy plateaux and the summits of the mountains. A horse that has passed through the sickness is called a 'salted' horse, and is considered very valuable. The best districts for horses lie in the north-east portion of the Cape Colony, in Albert, Colesberg, Cradock, Queens-town, Herschel, Wodehouse, Middelberg, and Hope-town. The Basuto pony, which is bred in the highlands of Basutoland, is a native kind of great excellence, and is admirably suited for Polo purposes, being sturdy, tractable, and good-tempered. There is great use, also, made of mules in the Cape Colony and South Africa generally, the chief pride and boast of a wealthy South African farmer being a well-appointed team of these animals.

(10) It may be safely asserted that wool, the staple industry of nearly all our Colonies, has been the surest and most profitable source of wealth both to the Colonial farmer and to the British manufacturer at home. It has been calculated that the total value of Colonial wool imported into England from 1831 to 1886 has reached the enormous sum of £421,000,000. This exceeds considerably the output of the gold mines, which appeal to the imagination more strongly than wool; but, as a Colonial product, precedence must be given to the 'golden fleece.' The first Merino sheep was introduced into the Cape in 1790 by a Colonel Gordon, who was in the Dutch service. He procured a number of rams of the fine-woolled sheep of the Escorial breed, which had been presented to the

Dutch Government by the King of Spain. When Colonel Gordon died, some of these sheep, which were not appreciated by the Dutch and French farmers¹, were shipped on board the English warships the 'Reliance' and the 'Supply' to Sydney. The Dutch and French farmers preferred the hairy fat-tailed sheep, and even to this day 'there is not a woman amongst the Dutch farming population who understands converting wool into stockings or jackets.' This is remarkable, as the Huguenot refugees were generally considered to be the best handicraftsmen in Europe. So completely, however, had the sojourn in the South African wilderness deadened their knowledge and enslaved their natures. For generations, also, they had left everything to their slaves.

In 1812, shortly after the British occupation, two gentlemen named Reitz and van Breda introduced some sheep of the genuine electoral breed from Saxony, and, later on, Lord Charles Somerset procured some good Spanish Merinos and kept them at a Government farm near Capetown. Subsequently, in 1820, the English Albany settlers imported more of the Spanish breed, and the industry grew at once. The multiplication of flocks was followed by some unforeseen drawbacks. In course of time the noxious plant, called the *Xanthium spinosum*, with its seeds furnished with barbs and hooks, and clinging tenaciously to the fleece, was introduced by the Merino sheep. By means of legislation, however, this plant has been promptly dealt with and exterminated. Another parasite called the carrot seed, with numerous hooks, and also the burr weed, were soon found to exist. But the greatest evils probably followed upon the overstocking of the veldt, and the trampling out of the herbage by the constant wanderings of the sheep backwards and forwards between the kraals. In some districts

¹ 'Argus Annual,' 1890, p. 377.

the sheep are shorn every six months, in others every seven or eight months, the dip of unwashed wool being six to eight pounds in weight.

The district par excellence for sheep runs is Beaufort West, situated along the Great Karroo, and where the sweet karroo bush is the favourite pasturage. It has 602,500 sheep, and Queenstown follows next with 576,000. Wodehouse, Fraserburg, Barkly East, Victoria West, Albert, and, generally speaking, the Midland and North-east Provinces, are best adapted for sheep. The total number of woolled sheep in 1888 (as distinguished from the hairy and fat-tailed sheep) was 11,162,000. This is a large number, but it falls very short of the Australian and New Zealand flocks. The value of Cape wool in 1890 was about £2,194,772, that of the Pacific Colonies more than tenfold this amount¹.

(11) The Angora goat is a most profitable source of wealth to the Cape colonist. Imported originally from Turkey, the goats seem to thrive in the pastures more especially of the Eastern and North-eastern Provinces, notably in the districts of Somerset East, Graaf Reinet, and Bedford. The first Angora goats were sent out to the Cape in 1854 at the instance of Mr. Titus Salt, but the real and practical introduction of the industry is said to be due to Mr. Mosenthal. The Asia Minor breed has been carefully crossed with the native with good results. The staple from the Cape ranks high as a valuable article of commerce. In 1868 the value of the export was £4,030; in 1890 there were flocks yielding 9,442,213 lbs., of the value of £337,239. The Cape supplies one-third of the total consumption in Great Britain, the remainder coming from Turkey².

¹ Appendix XII. Cape Wool.

² See Paper by the Hon. J. X. Merriman, vol. xvi, 'Proceedings of Royal Colonial Institute.'

(12) South Africa is a land that provides a natural home for the Ostrich, and for many years the bird was hunted for its feathers until it was thought it would soon be exterminated. But, about 1865, ostriches began to be domesticated, and it is estimated that in 1888 there were more than 152,000 tame birds in Cape Colony, yielding 260,000 lbs. of feathers¹. Mr. Douglass, an English farmer in the Eastern Province, was the first to develop the industry in a most striking way by means of incubators. In 1882 the shipment of feathers was 253,954 lbs., valued at £1,039,989, and in 1885 the shipment was 251,084 lbs., but the value had fallen to £585,278. The price of feathers varies from two shillings a pound for 'dark chicks' to many pounds for pure whites. The following is a table showing the price at different times² :—

	<i>Per Pound.</i>		<i>Per Pound.</i>
1850	£3 13 0	1870	£3 1 0
1855	6 0 0	1875	6 3 0
1860	8 8 0	1880	5 8 0
1865	3 14 0	1885	2 6 0

(13) The imports and exports of the Cape Colony have been as follows for the last twelve years, showing certain fluctuations and depressions (excepting specie) :—

Imports.

1879-80	£7,185,789	1885-86	£4,253,708
1880-81	8,607,498	1886-87	4,329,073
1881-82	9,786,116	1887-88	5,299,818
1882-83	8,010,935	1888-89	5,678,830
1883-84	5,370,475	1889-90	7,942,506
1884-85	4,993,485	1890-91	8,470,550

¹ Appendix XIII. Ostrich Feathers.

² 'Journal of Society of Arts,' Dec. 1886.

Exports.

1879-80	£7,277,913	1885-86	£6,357,667
1880-81	7,820,319	1886-87	7,692,001
1881-82	8,243,592	1887-88	8,246,398
1882-83	8,180,079	1888-89	8,876,657
1883-84	7,019,313	1889-90	9,400,955
1884-85	6,401,864	1890-91	9,969,165

The chief articles of export are (1) *wool*, which shows a slight decrease, the value in 1890-91 falling to £2,194,772 from £2,251,375 in the preceding year. (2) *Angora hair*, which, according to latest statistics, has remained almost stationary in amount and value during the last year or two. (3) *Ostrich feathers*, which show a great increase, viz. £365,884 in 1889, and £563,948 in 1890. (4) *Copper ore*, which has remained almost stationary in 1888, 1889, and 1890. The gold shipped through Cape ports was £860,271 in 1889 and £1,856,800 in 1890.

(14) As direct taxation is never popular in a young country, the revenue of the Cape Colony is chiefly derived from customs and railways. The revenue for 1888-1889 was £3,837,220, of which no less than £1,538,694 was derived from railways, and £1,146,302 from customs, including harbour dues. Stamps and stamped licences brought in about £150,000, postage £146,967, land revenue £153,802. Land sales bring in very little to the Cape exchequer now, the amount realised from this source in 1886-1887 being only £9,000. In the Australasian Colonies they have been a very large source of wealth. During the years 1881-2-3 New Zealand derived the sums of £558,000, £461,000, £401,000, respectively, from them. But it is an asset that can be easily exhausted. The revenue of the Cape Colony is increasing rapidly. In 1872 it first reached £1,000,000; in 1890-91 it was £4,392,221¹.

¹ Appendix XIV. The Cape Revenue.

(15) The following figures will show the nature of the chief items of the Colonial expenditure in 1887-1888:—

Interest on Public Debt	£1,088,629
Railways, Maintenance	716,309
Police and Gaols	187,730
Post Office and Mails	182,610
Defence	138,903
Civil Establishments	122,881
Crown Lands, Forests, Harbours, &c.	112,272
	<hr/>
	£2,549,334
	<hr/>

The whole expenditure for the year was £3,248,544. It will be seen, therefore, how large a portion of the annual income is taken to pay interest for borrowed money, chiefly borrowed for the purposes of railway construction, and secondly to keep the railways in repair. The other items that call for remark are the votes (1887-88) of £97,947 for the administration of justice, £93,271 for natives and native education, £87,718 for science and general education, £54,890 for prisons and convicts. A nearer inspection of the various items proves that the Cape Colony is somewhat heavily weighted by her native responsibilities, although not quite so considerably as in former times. When conquest has been really effected and administration is carried on peacefully, the native is both a labourer for the white man and a purchaser of his goods. Further, it must be noticed that, in proportion to their income, the Colonists spend a large amount on education. In 1878-89 the Cape spent £18,121 on aided immigration, in 1887-88, £159.

(16) The revenue and expenditure in the native territories deserve notice, as it will be seen that upon the whole these territories have more than paid both for their government and for their education. The report from the chief magistracy of Transkei may be taken

as a fair example of the character of native administration under the Cape Government.

Revenue from 1st January to 31st December, 1888 :—

Land Revenue (Hut-tax, &c.)	£14,497	0	11
Transfer Duty	19	14	0
Auction Duty	12	7	8
Stamped Licences	1,252	17	6
Blank Stamps	312	6	2
Postal Collections	765	17	10
Telegraph Collections	152	17	3
Fines, Forfeitures, and Fees of Court	772	9	6
Reimbursements in aid	14	18	6
Miscellaneous Receipts	42	6	9
Special Receipts	68	19	1
Interest and Premium	21	3	6
Total revenue during 1888	£17,932	18	8

Expenditure from 1st January to 31st December, 1888 :—

Ordinary	£10,882	17	11
Stationery	66	11	2
Education	3,880	9	11
Postal	449	15	7
Telegraphs	235	6	6
Survey Expenses	20	9	2
Total expenditure during 1888	£15,535	10	3

This shows a slight surplus of revenue over expenditure. At the same time, the report from the chief magistracy of Tembuland shows a total revenue of £21,811 14s. 0d. and an expenditure of £19,384 4s. 6d.; that from Griqualand East shows a revenue of £28,293 19s. 0d. and an expenditure of £21,059 0s. 8d.; that from Port St. John's a revenue of £547 2s. 8d. and an expenditure of £1,387 11s. 8d. In this latter case it must be remembered that Port St. John's is simply a

small position abutting on the semi-independent country of the Pondo, which is wedged in between the Cape Colony and Natal¹. It is well known that when Basutoland was administered by the Cape Government, before the unfortunate Basuto War, the country yielded a considerable surplus every year. Mr. Merriman has pointed out that the Basutos have been, and still are, most valuable purchasers of manufactured goods, the trade being worth several hundreds of thousand pounds annually².

(17) The debt of the Cape Colony is more than £20,000,000. Of this amount £15,232,890 has been spent on reproductive works. For railway construction the Government have borrowed £13,431,620, for bridges £388,548, for telegraphs £188,400, for harbours at East London and the Kowie £543,030 and £297,166. There was no public debt until 1859, when the amount borrowed was £101,250. In 1863 it touched a million, in 1879 ten millions, in 1883 twenty millions. The following table shows the debt between 1878-1888 :—

In 1878 the amount was	£7,449,109
1879 " "	10,017,409
1880 " "	11,391,809
1881 " "	13,261,709
1882 " "	16,098,409
1883 " "	20,811,009
1884 " "	20,804,132
1885 " "	21,672,162
1886 " "	22,461,293
1887 " "	22,518,002
1888 " "	22,295,124 ³

(18) There are three railway systems in the Cape Colony, the Western, the Midland, and the Eastern,

¹ 'Blue Book on Native Affairs,' 1889, p. 58. Cape of Good Hope.

² 'Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute,' vol. xvi.

³ Appendix XV. The Debt of the Cape Colony.

extending over a distance of 1,599 miles. Of these, the Western, uniting Capetown and Table Bay with Vryburg, is the longest, with a total, including branch lines, of 718 miles. The distance between Capetown and Kimberley is 674 miles. The line, after passing steep gradients and winding in and out of the Hex River valley, emerges upon the great inland plateau of the Colony, and from this point passes through a singularly dry and uninviting tract of country. The Midland system links the town of Port Elizabeth with the Western railway at de Aar, and together with its branches extends over a distance of 589 miles. The Eastern system links the harbour of the Buffalo with Aliwal North and extends over 282 miles. For some time past the town of Kimberley was the objective of all these railways, and the goal of all railway enterprise; but now this has long ceased to be the case. The railway has already been extended northwards from Kimberley through Bechuanaland to Mafeking, and in a few years will probably be advanced much further, possibly bringing even the distant Mashonaland in touch with the northern parts of the Colony. Schemes are already formed to include the Orange Free State and South African Republic within the network of railways that must eventually cover South Africa; and railway extension is pre-eminently a public work upon which all communities can unite. In a country like South Africa, where ports and estuaries are few and far between, and navigable rivers and canals are conspicuous by their absence, the expediency of a complete railway system is beyond all question. When once the great trunk line has been pushed forward to the interior, and the route to the northwards sufficiently assured, the minor details of the South African railway schemes will probably be filled in. The Cape Colony itself requires a lateral development

from west to east, and many local extensions which will bring the farmers and the agricultural population in touch with the main centres. Produce will thus be more easily distributed, communication will be made easier, and the somewhat sleepy South African hollows awakened to a quicker and more adventurous life.

A glance at the map will show that Capetown, lying as it does at the extreme south-west corner of the Colony, is somewhat heavily handicapped in the competition for the interior traffic. Port Elizabeth, East London, and Natal are all more favourably situated to the gold fields of the north than Capetown, and this geographical advantage must tell in the long run. It is possible, also, that trade in the north may be deflected to one of the ports on the eastern sea-board of South Africa, such as Delagoa Bay, the Zambesi mouth, and Beira harbour. The sum expended on the 1,599 miles of railways in the Cape Colony has been £14,186,000¹, the cost per mile, including the rolling stock, being £8,889. If the present indebtedness of the Colony on account of railways be taken as a basis, the rate of interest earned has been £5 *2s. 2d.* per cent. in 1888-89 on the total amount; viz. £13,534,078, so that, after paying all expenses and interest to the amount of £557,711, due on the present capital for 1888, the railway department contributed £137,645 towards the general revenue of the Colony. The wonderful development of the Transvaal gold mines has, of course, had an effect upon the railway traffic. It is needless to add that the whole railway system of the Cape, with a trifling exception here and there, is in the hands of the Cape Government and under the control of the Commissioner for Crown Lands and Public Works.

(19) Together with railways must be considered the

¹ Appendix XVI. On recent extensions.

telegraph lines at the Cape Colony. The advance has been great here, as in all other departments of public works. In 1889 there were 4,510 miles of line open with 11,325 miles of wire, the cost of construction being £387,448.

This system, like that of the railways, is in the hands of Government, with the exception of 222 miles of private wire¹. Telegraphs are a source of profit to the Government, messages are cheap, and the wires are freely used. The thin strand that goes over hill and dale in South Africa, through all its solitudes and wastes, is one of the most striking signs of civilisation in the country. The Kaffirs and natives seldom damage the wire, as they are influenced by a kind of superstitious awe respecting it, and view it as one of the white man's inscrutable and magic operations. The telegraph system of the Cape is connected with all other Colonial systems and with that of Europe. The submarine cable in use is that of the Eastern coast, connecting Natal, Delagoa Bay, and the Mozambique harbours. This cable was laid down in the first instance owing to our necessities in the Zulu War².

(20) The post-office at the Cape is an efficient and ably managed institution. During the Dutch *régime* no inland post existed, but in 1806 Sir David Baird, then in command of the British troops, established a general system throughout the whole Colony, promoting a speedy and safe intercourse between Capetown and the several Drostdies or magistrates' residences, not only for the conveyance of the orders of Government, but also for the convenience of the inhabitants. The post was carried by relays of Hottentots, placed at suitable stations along the road. There was a proclamation also issued in

¹ 'Statistical Register of the Cape of Good Hope,' 1888, p. 190.

² Appendix XVII. The Submarine Cables.

1806 by which masters of vessels arriving at the bays of the Colony should deliver to the captain of the port all letters for the garrison and the inhabitants. They were also required to take with them any mails that might be made up for India or Europe. Thus, one of the greatest comforts and conveniences of modern life, a regular and responsible public mail system, was brought to the doors of the Cape Colony by the British. At the present moment the utmost facilities exist. The postal rate between England and the Cape has been recently reduced from 6*d.* to 2½*d.* A cheap book and parcel post has also been established, and throughout the Colony the uniform penny rate exists as in England. In connection with the Post Office the system of Savings Banks has been initiated with the best results. In the years 1884-88 a sum of £1,023,577 was deposited, for which a reasonable rate of interest was allowed. The ocean contract time with the steamers plying between England and Capetown, by the western route, a distance of nearly 6,000 miles, is twenty days. From Capetown the mails are quickly conveyed by rail to Kimberley, Grahamstown, and Graaf Reinet, reaching the two last-named places in two-and-a-half days. Formerly the postal time between Grahamstown, a distance of 600 miles, took eight days. The British occupation of the eastern parts of the Colony in 1820 encouraged, and in fact necessitated this intercourse between east and west. The postal service was conducted, and indeed is still conducted, under great difficulties in out-of-the-way parts of South Africa. The roads are often very bad, rivers unbridged, and the country districts at certain times impassable. It is wonderful that the service has been maintained with such skill and punctuality. Very often valuable mails, especially in the early days of the Diamond Mines, when diamonds were sent by post-cart, were entrusted to a

completely unprotected though skilful Hottentot driver, who almost invariably managed to deliver his valuable charge safely at its destination; and highway robberies were almost unknown. The weight of diamonds sent by post from Kimberley amounted in 1889-90 to 2597 lbs., and the task of conveying four million pounds worth of jewels every year between Kimberley and the ports is a most peculiar function of the Cape post-office. Wherever the British influence extends a good and reliable postal system follows at once. As a case in point, it may be mentioned that, immediately upon the occupation of Mashonaland, communication was kept open with Bechuanaland and the Cape Colony by means of mounted relays, and an efficient service established. In three weeks it was found possible to send letters from Fort Salisbury in Mashonaland to Capetown, a distance of from 1600 to 1700 miles. Much of the country to be traversed is utterly wild and very difficult to pass. It should be noticed, at the same time, that the Portuguese postal system from the coast to the interior has always been miserably deficient and irregular, messages and letters from Mashonaland to Pungwe harbour and Sofala formerly taking several months in the transit, although the distance is only 250 miles. In this as in all other respects, the Portuguese, although they have been in the country 400 years, have utterly failed to administer it in the smallest as well as the highest department of government.

(21) In the matter of Trade and Commerce the South African colonies are extremely valuable to the mother-country. In the first place, the Cape Colony and Natal hold a most advantageous maritime position, compelling the traffic to descend from the interior through their ports. This natural advantage has given them the basis of negotiation with the inland Republics. South Africa itself

abounds in raw material, which is sent to England, and is there converted into articles of luxury, use, and apparel. Up to the present time there is little or no desire on the part of South African colonists to manufacture for themselves. In Canada, and Australia, and New Zealand the colonists have been able to compete with the mother-country in some branches of industry. In North America there is unrivalled water power coming to the assistance of the colonists, and helping them in their industries; in South Africa this power can hardly be said to exist, the water-wheels being few and far between, and devoted chiefly to the purposes of grinding corn and wool-washing. Coal, also, of a very superior quality is found in such parts of the Colonial world as Nova Scotia, the North-West Territories, British Columbia, and elsewhere; but in South Africa it is only just being developed.

Again, the British South African Colonies are the means of introducing British commerce to an absolutely limitless market for manufactured goods in the interior. In these days of trade competition nations are striving to reach a market where they can command a large native trade. Durban and Capetown are two distinct termini of railway systems which must eventually open up the Zambesi and Congo valleys and Equatorial Africa. The natives themselves, as already proved, are very profitable from a trader's and merchant's standpoint. After having earned money in helping to develop the country as a labourer, generally at the gold or diamond fields, the Kaffir spends it on articles of European manufacture, and this process of working and buying has gradually leavened the whole of South Africa to an indefinite extent. As a rule the native workman is impressed at the fields with the safety and security that prevails under the British flag. He may not be a very assiduous

or painstaking labourer at first, still he has done a great deal in South Africa and for South Africa.

(22) Trade depends for its prosperity upon the amicable union of labour and capital. In the Pacific Colonies there is endless friction and discomfort in the labour market ; where the white man is the labourer, asks for a monopoly, and often deters immigration by every means in his power. Conditions are different in South Africa, and the black man is, after all, a cheap labourer. A Kaffir 'herd' or shepherd can often be engaged for £1 a month on a farm, with food and hut, and this is very moderate. When he learns to be skilful he naturally asks for more ; but up to the present time, anyhow, he has helped to solve the labour question and to give an impulse to trade. When the Kaffir fails the Bombay coolie steps in on the east coast, and in Natal especially. For the present there is no such opposition to his importation, as there is in Australia to the Chinese ; but with so many natives at hand, it seems unreasonable to encourage more from other countries.

(23) The shipping to South Africa is done almost entirely by British vessels, and there is no mercantile marine and no Colonial shipping, as in the Dominion of Canada, to compete with their coasting trade. The Union Steamship Company and the Castle line furnish a striking object-lesson to convince us of the expansion of Cape trade. 'The U.S.S. Company was formed in 1853, and was at first intended to engage in the coal-carrying trade, but as the Crimean war broke out, five vessels of an aggregate tonnage of 2,327 only ran from Southampton to Constantinople and Smyrna in place of the P. and O. boats, which were occupied in postal and war services. After the war in 1856, these vessels traded between Southampton and Brazilian ports with cargoes. This business, however,

was not very profitable, and some of the steamers were taken off and sent voyaging between Hamburg and Liverpool. But in 1857 the Company took a contract from the Government to run the mails to the Cape, and they have been engaged in this ever since, though this service has been shared with the Castle or Donald Currie line since 1873. In 1876 the mail contract was divided between them¹. These vessels carry the mails beyond Capetown to Natal, Delagoa Bay, Inhambane, Quillimane, and Ibose, and the Castle line runs direct from Flushing to South Africa, carrying mails for the Dutch Government. The English services come into rivalry with the Portuguese along the Mozambique coast; but the Portuguese service is deficient here, as it is in other matters when brought into competition with British energy. At present there is little profit to be made either by the Castle or Union lines north of Delagoa Bay; unless, indeed, Beira on the Pungwe River developes speedily as the nearest point to Mashonaland. The ships of these two British Companies are a fleet in themselves. The Union boats are twenty-one in number, with an aggregate tonnage of 57,781. The two Companies together take out annually about 18,000 passengers and bring home 10,000, whilst the cargoes they carry are an index of the value of South African trade². The limits of speed on both lines are not considered to be touched even yet, and the U.S.S. Company have built a steamer, the *Scot*, which on all occasions outpaces the others on the Cape lines. Such vessels, magnificent monuments of the skill and industry of British workmen, sweep these seas unchallenged. They are really among the marvels of this present century, and are the visible links which keep the Colonial world in touch with the mother-country.

¹ 'Murray's Magazine,' May, 1891.

² Appendix XVIII. Trade and The Flag.

Propelled at the rate of nearly twenty miles an hour, they seem to falsify Burke's statement, and annihilate the barriers of time and space.

For many reasons, therefore, the South African trade is very valuable to Great Britain ; more so, perhaps, than that of any of her Colonial possessions, if its prospective value be considered. For after all, English traders and English merchants are only on the fringe of the great Continent. The very position also of the Cape is a matter of importance to a maritime power like England. It stands half-way, as it were, between east and west, and shares in the traffic of the whole world.

(24) Such, in its main aspects, is the tale of progress and development in the Cape Colony, the premier Colony of South Africa. Her annals are interesting to us, as they illustrate a page of Colonial progress, government, and administration of which every Briton must be justly proud. Unfortunately the record of good deeds, quiet development, and substantial prosperity has been blurred by visions of rough border wars and unfortunate disputes with the old Dutch and French settlers. Very often England has been represented as a greedy persecuting power in South Africa, 'with an overweening pride and insatiable lust of conquest over which she throws a mantle of hypocrisy. Such is the opinion often passed upon her position by hostile continental critics. A bare statement of acknowledged facts will be the best answer to those who dispute England's title-deeds to the first place in South Africa. In every department of state and in every detail of administration the British authorities and the British colonists have led the way to an altered and improved state of society in South Africa. In the first place, the brunt of conquest, as evidenced in a long series of costly Kaffir campaigns, has fallen upon her shoulders. During their long history at the Cape the Boer

voertrekkers had to face, in the first instance, miserable hordes of Hottentots and Bushmen whom they found it not very difficult to shoot down by means of their superior weapons. When they met the Zulus they had of course many desperate encounters in which they fought courageously against great odds; but the main task of subjugating the Kaffirs thoroughly and completely has rested with the British forces from the days of the first occupation, at the beginning of this century, to the decisive battle of Ulundi in 1880. The cost of these wars for England has been tremendous. Sir W. Molesworth once stated in a parliamentary debate on South African affairs in July, 1855, that our military expenditure at the Cape amounted to a sum of nearly half a million annually. Mr. Gladstone, speaking more recently on a Bechuanaland debate, estimated the cost of Kaffir wars to England at twelve millions of money. Our South African possessions have been built up at an enormous sacrifice of men and money.

(25) It is more pleasant to turn to the triumphs of peace and administration, following the alarms of war. Historical contrasts are useful and instructive, and it is by contrast between what the Cape was before and what it was after British occupation that we can best understand the great and beneficent work England has done in the Cape Colony. In the first place, as regards the government, she at once began to establish a progressive and enlightened system in the place of the old and effete monopoly that had brooded over the country for 150 years, in the hands of the Dutch East India Company. Full civic enfranchisement was not to come for some years, but the signs of a better *régime* were quick in appearing in all the details of administrative government. All European colonists in South Africa, whether of Dutch or French extraction, began first to understand

what the words 'Freedom and a Freehold' meant. Under the old system the colonists had been unable, with a few insignificant exceptions, to call their lands and property their own, the system of loan-leases, as already shown, prohibiting a coveted independence. In every sense they were pensioners on the goodwill of a narrow government. In matters of religion and education their best interests were notoriously neglected. Mr. Theal remarks that when the British arrived at the Cape there was not one good school in the Colony, and that in the country districts the children, even of the better class of farmers, could only receive a slight smattering of education from disreputable wandering pedagogues or 'meesters,' who were vagabonds from Europe. Nor was there a single book-store or newspaper in the Colony previous to 1800. The voertrekkers had wandered far beyond the control and influence of the clergy, and, if they wished to be married, were compelled to travel immense distances in order to appear before the Matrimonial Court at Capetown. Their social and domestic life was of a poor and mean character. The same author writes that on the loan-farms comfort was an unknown word, and that the hovels or 'pondoks,' in which the graziers lived, seldom contained more than two rooms and frequently only one. 'These rooms were destitute of the most ordinary furniture. The great waggon-chest, which served for a table as well as a receptacle for clothing, a couple of camp-stools, and a kartel or two (wooden frames with a network of strips of raw hide stretched across them) were the only household goods possessed by many¹. They had no crockery or knives or forks, and the greater part of their clothing was made of the skins of animals. Their boots, or veldt-schoens, were of untanned ox hide. Occasionally these people made

¹ Theal's 'Compendium of South African History,' pp. 162-163.

long treks to visit their relations, and Mr. Theal observes that a grazier was generally on good terms with every man in the Colony except his nearest neighbours, with whom he was always having a dispute about beacons and grazing rights. 'The mistress of the house who moved about but little, issued orders to slaves or Hottentot females concerning the work of the household. If the weather was chilly or damp, she rested her feet on a little box filled with live coals, while beside her stood a coffee kettle never empty. The head of the family usually inspected his flocks morning and evening, and passed the remainder of the day, like his helpmate, in the enjoyment of ease. When repose itself became wearisome, he mounted his horse, and, with an attendant to carry his gun, set off in pursuit of some of the wild animals with which the country then abounded¹.' One of the worst features, however, of the old society was that there was little or no justice in the land. It was a notorious fact that the Fiscal or public prosecutor compounded crimes for pecuniary penalties, of which he took one-third himself. As there was no personal freedom, so there seems to have been no law worth the name. It was hard to appeal to law and equity from immense distances at enormous preliminary costs, especially when the fountains of justice were poisoned. The old Dutch Government, by centralising every office in and near Capetown, hoped to check expansion. Lands were unsurveyed, the coasts were of set purpose left unlighted and unknown, there were no charts or maps, and neither by sea nor land was there a reliable beacon of any sort. Sparrmann, the Swedish traveller, has clearly stated that the Dutch officials most studiously ignored the geography, natural history, and physical features of the country they lived in, and tried to

¹ Theal's 'Compendium of South African History,' p. 163.

prevent strangers learning it. The colonists were looked upon as a degraded and inferior class of men, and at the time of the British occupation they had begun to flout in return the authority of the Company. Judge Watermeyer has observed that 'substantially every man in the country, of every hue, was benefitted when the incubus of the Dutch East India Company was removed.'

(26) The genius of English colonists is always essentially practical, and it speedily began to manifest itself. Sir John Barrow was commissioned at once to survey the country in a scientific manner, and under English surveyors the work has been diligently carried on from that day to this. A postal system was established by degrees for the benefit of all, traders and merchants had a better opportunity of selling their produce, and every branch of industry was pushed forward with greater activity. Better breeds of horses and of sheep were at once introduced, and English sportsmen and travellers were soon exploring the country and introducing it to the notice of the world. Enlightened governors like Lord Charles Somerset and the Earl of Macartney took an interest in agriculture, and improved the stock of the country. Unlike Canada, the Cape cannot be a great stock-raising and dairy country, but much can be done with the animals that will flourish there by means of careful selection. Missionaries took up the task, bequeathed by the Moravians, of educating and training the natives, and the work of evangelisation and reform has been continued with the utmost zeal and devotion by a long roll of devoted men called to the task almost entirely from Europe; whose efforts, like those of Livingstone, were often impeded by the original Dutch peasantry of the country. For many years, British officers on furlough from India made the Cape a sojourning place, and helped to advance the best interests of the country in

many ways. Before the opening of the Suez Canal, Table Bay and Simon's Bay were relatively of greater importance than they are now. Botanists were not slow to follow in the footsteps of Andrew Sparrmann, Thunberg, Le Vaillant, and others, and the extraordinary natural wealth of the continent was brought to view. All the scientific work connected with the land was done by 'uitlanders' or strangers, and the most valuable explorations have resulted, not from aimless trekkings and migrations, but from well-equipped and scientific expeditions.

(27) Presently England was destined to abolish slavery in the land, and wipe away a stigma that had rested upon it for a long time, and had won it a very evil name. Escaped bands of slaves haunted the country and made even the life of the Dutch Boer a life oftentimes of trembling fear and wild revenges. Then the question of slave compensation arose, which has been set forth as the great grievance, above all others, of the Boers. But in many cases it was an ignorance of the simplest business transactions that kept them from profiting by it, and there was no injustice whatever intended by the British Government. There was no doubt that it was the general principle of emancipation that was cordially disliked. The great Trek, when several thousands of Boers crossed the Orange River, is instanced by superficial observers and partisan chroniclers as an escape from tyranny and a flight from an overbearing rule. This was not the case. It has been the ingrained habit of the Boers to trek for generations. During the month of April, 1891, there was a well-founded rumour that a large trek of Boers was taking place from the Transvaal Republic, a country as large as France, where it might have been thought that they would live satisfied with their independence, and that there was still room enough for

70,000 people to dwell in comfort. There is a lawlessness in the Boers, which is apparent under all circumstances, evidenced by their own internal disputes in the Republics, in their filibustering raids, and in the frequent establishment of such travesties of rule as the mock Republics of Goshen, Stellaland, the New Republic, and others. Over all these elements of unrest, standing as it were between the European and native races, as arbiter and judge, the British Government has been compelled, at the risk of much calumny and misrepresentation, to hold a controlling and restraining influence. England's motives have often been misread, her mission impeded, her magnanimity turned into a garbled tale. But the work of defence and of administration has gone steadily on. Outside she has preserved the sea bulwarks of the Cape inviolate with her ships, and along the frontier she has always opposed an arm of strength against the savage foe; in this latter instance, often sorely against her will. Her duties have been to take the premier position in small things as well as great. The material triumphs of more recent years are perhaps the greatest and most striking of all. Railways have been built, telegraph lines established, harbours deepened, mines developed, steamers constructed, and the whole country brought into the system of the civilised world by means of British capital and British enterprise. Such indeed is the striking monument of British greatness in this distant quarter of the globe.



CHAPTER XI.

The Colony of Natal.

(1) The Colony of Natal, which abuts on the shores of the Indian Ocean, differs very widely in features and characteristics from the Cape Colony. Along the south-eastern shores of Africa there has been for ages contact with the East, bringing Eastern trade and Eastern influences. The old Portuguese writers allude frequently to the trade and commerce of the Moors, carried on far inland and reaching along the great valley of the Zambesi. It was through the aid of Moorish pilots that Vasco da Gama, after discovering Natal on the natal day of our Lord, 1497, crossed the Indian Ocean and reached the city of Calicut. The pilots of those seas were, according to Osorio, 'instructed in so many of the arts of navigation, that they did not yield much to the Portuguese mariners in the science and practice of maritime matters¹.'

In early days, however, the Port of Natal was very little used by Portuguese or Dutch mariners. The Portuguese traders gave both the Cape of Good Hope, and also the coast of Kaffraria and Natal, a very wide berth, and made for the harbour of Delagoa Bay or for the refuges of the Mozambique coast. The navigation of these seas was not learned without many experiences of disaster, the south-east gales often being accompanied with shipwreck and loss of life. In May, 1685, an English vessel called the 'Good Hope' was wrecked at

¹ 'Voyages of Vasco da Gama,' p. 138. Hakluyt Series.

Natal with fifty hands on board, and in 1686 a Dutch vessel called the 'Stavenisse,' laden with spices from the East, ran ashore here. The survivors of the wrecks were the means of disseminating much knowledge concerning the country, and especially the natives, who were evidently of the great Bantû race, and far superior to the Bushmen and Hottentots of the south-west coast. The great Dampier has preserved an interesting account of the country gathered from the lips of a certain Captain Rogers, who had seen and visited it.

(2) As the passenger sitting on the quarter-deck of one of the magnificent ocean steamers of the present day glides by the wooded and romantic shores of Kaffraria, and views at his leisure the deep and silent gorges of a picturesque country threaded by numerous streams, he little realises the dangers and difficulties undergone by the early mariners. Although the Mozambique current flows south past the eastern coasts, it has long been discovered that there is a back current flowing north, close to the shore, of which steamers going from Port Elizabeth to Natal take advantage, and so near glimpses of the country are easily procured from the deck. On the southward or return voyage steamers give the coasts a wide berth. As the steamer approaches the high point known as the Natal Bluff the environs of the Port of Natal come into view. All along the coast for many miles there have been few signs of civilisation, perhaps a few patches of Indian corn or the green sugar-cane fields appearing as little oases in the country; but here, on the spacious shores of the Bay of Natal, a beautiful city springs into view, commanding in queen-like grace the waters of the Indian Ocean. Called Durban, after the name of a former governor, Sir Benjamin D'Urban, 1834, it has risen within recent years to great prosperity, chiefly owing to the wealth of the Diamond Fields, and

the discovery of the Gold Fields in the Transvaal. The heights of Berea, that crown the Bay, are clustered with many picturesque homes of British merchants and colonists, surrounded by all the natural wealth of a luxuriant subtropical country, built upon a series of terraced slopes that look down upon a sea as beautiful as that of the Mediterranean. Occasionally storms break with great violence upon Natal, and one of the chief obstacles to the growth of the port has been the rough and shallow bar.

(3) For many years past the Natal colonists have, with untiring zeal and energy, set themselves about the task of improving their harbour. To gain this object there has been an unstinted expenditure of public money, the amount being no less than £640,729 for the years 1881-1889. But the uncertain ocean currents and the unforeseen shiftings of sand have disappointed hope. Still it is the object and ambition of Natalians to make this harbour a great eastern coast port and a coaling depôt for the Indian Ocean, and it can hardly be doubted that they will succeed ultimately. In 1878 no steamers of over 700 tons came inside the harbour, in 1889 there were 87. The channel depth has gone on increasing from year to year. In 1882 it was 6 feet 1 in., and in 1888 it was 11 feet 6 inches. But during the last year or two the depth of water has remained very nearly the same. The shipping, however, at Port Natal has gone on increasing at a very quick rate, owing to the impulse given by the trade with the gold fields¹. In 1887 the tonnage of ships entering in was 235,485, but in 1889 it had risen to 513,360. It is worth while to compare the shipping here with that at Table Bay, as it shows the position of the Eastern harbour. In 1889 the tonnage of ships, inwards, at Table Bay amounted to 1,269,220 tons.

¹ Appendix XIX. Natal Shipping Statistics.

Clearly, therefore, Port Natal, owing to her proximity to the Transvaal, is attracting heavy freights, and the value of goods imported amounted in 1890 to the sum of £4,417,085.

(4) The area of Natal is 20,363 square miles, with the following Counties and Divisions, containing a mixed population of black and white.

<i>County of Pietermaritzburg.</i>	<i>Whites.</i>	<i>Indians.</i>	<i>Natives.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
City Division	9,251	1,654	4,862	15,767
Umgeni Division	1,694	633	29,540	31,867
Lion's River Division	904	456	9,524	10,884
Upper Umkomanzi	728	98	15,300	16,126
Ixopo Division	557	8	45,652	46,217
<i>County of Durban.</i>				
Borough Division	9,182	4,332	5,057	18,571
Umlazi Division	2,943	7,350	27,190	37,483
<i>County of Victoria.</i>				
Inanda Division	1,246	13,787	30,715	45,748
Lower Tugela	738	1,609	52,864	55,211
<i>County of Umvoti.</i>	1,627	178	54,731	56,536
<i>County of Klip River.</i>				
Klip River Division	2,085	1,500	19,940	23,525
Newcastle Division	1,639	156	12,577	14,372
Umsinga Division	643	45	34,296	34,984
<i>County of Weenen</i>	1,747	536	27,080	29,363
<i>County of Alfred</i>	529	28	21,400	21,957
<i>County of Alexandra</i>	420	2,900	19,430	22,750
Total	35,933	35,270	410,158	481,361¹

(5) The above figures call for some consideration, as they show the relative proportion of the white to the black population and the way in which they are dis-

¹ Appendix XX. Natal Census Summaries.

tributed. It will be observed that the Kaffirs outnumber the Europeans by nearly twelve to one, and also that the Indian immigrants, unknown in former years, now equal, if they do not outnumber, the Europeans. It is a well-known fact that the Kaffirs increase both within and without the native reserves and locations under the protecting flag of Great Britain. With regard to the distribution of the Kaffirs it will be seen that they are most numerous along the rivers and coast lands next to Zululand. In the valley of the Tugela, from the headwaters to the sea, their crowded huts are to be seen from the Umzinga division through the county of Umvoti. There are large numbers, also, in the Victoria and Ixopo districts on the extreme southern corner of Natal. The Indian immigrants are found principally in the vicinity of Durban, both north and south, no fewer than 25,000 out of a total of 35,000 living in the Inanda, Umlazi, and borough of Durban divisions. Large numbers of free Indian farmers rent lands at a low scale and grow mealies, fruit, and vegetables. They have formed a very useful class of small cultivators, being more steady and hardworking than the Kaffirs. They are, however, very migratory in their habits, and easily drift away to the gold centres of the interior. They make useful indoor servants and waiters, and are found in considerable numbers in the towns. Of the whole number of Indians engaged to come into the Colony *under indentures more than 20,000 are now free. They can claim a return passage to their native country after ten years, and go backwards and forwards in families, the law requiring that they shall not be separated.

Of these counties and divisions Pietermaritzburg is by far the largest, containing an area of 5,368 square miles out of a total of 20,363, the Umsinga division

ranking next with an area of 2,500, Weenen with 2,300, Klip River with 1,950, Alexandra with 1,620. Umvoti with 1580, Newcastle with 1,550, Alfred with 1,544.

(6) Up to the present date the Government of Natal has been of the representative but not fully responsible character, the chief administrative power lying in the hands of the Governor and the Executive Council, consisting of (1) the Chief Justice, (2) the Senior Military Officer, (3) the Colonial Secretary, (4) the Treasurer, (5) the Attorney General, (6) the Secretary for Native Affairs, (7) the Colonial Engineer, (8) Two Members of the Legislative Council nominated by the Governor. The total number of the Legislative Council was thirty, of whom twenty-three were elected from the ten Electoral divisions of the counties of Pietermaritzburg, Durban, Klip River, Newcastle, Victoria, Umvoti, Weenen, Alexandria, and Alfred, with the boroughs of Durban and Pietermaritzburg. The total number of electors was under 10,000. In consequence of the expressed desire of Natalians a fully responsible form of Government is being presented for their consideration on the one-chamber principle¹.

(7) The capital and seat of Government in Natal is the City of Pietermaritzburg,—so called after two Dutchmen, Pieter Retief and Gerhardus Maritz,—distant about seventy-one miles from the Port of Natal. A journey by the main line from the coast to the seat of Government will very clearly show the character of the country. Almost all the way there is a climb from low to comparatively high elevations, the line reaching a height of 3,054 feet above the sea level, at a distance of only fifty-eight miles from Durban. Briefly speaking, there seem to be three well-defined districts. First, along the shores and stretching for thirty or forty miles inland

¹ Appendix XXI. The Natal Constitution.

there is the littoral and maritime district where the sugar-cane is grown and sugar is manufactured. Here, too, the eye will rest upon warm and fertile places where cotton, arrowroot, tea, and coffee flourish. There is no lack of water in this part of South Africa, and a ride from Port Natal to Zululand will show the traveller many broad streams, which, swollen by summer rains, often roll down floods of water which might be utilised for the purposes of man more than they are already. Among these littoral tracts the native squatter can often be seen cultivating his mealie patch and sometimes his sugar-canes, and thriving under the protection of the British flag. The second district is on a higher level, and is exposed to frosts and cold snaps from which the coast regions are exempt. It is well timbered and well watered, and along its villages and depressions the English style of farming prevails. Wheat, oats, barley, turnips, potatoes, and cabbages all grow well here. The third district is bounded by the Drakenberg range, and is on a still higher level. It is along the open veldt here that the best ranches or grazing and pastoral tracts can be found. Sheep and horses do best here, and there is abundance of pasture for them all the year round.

(8) As might be supposed, it is in Durban and Pietermaritzburg that the European population chiefly clusters, there being 9,000 in the former and 9,251 in the latter, comprising more than half of the whole population¹. The two centres are perfectly distinct in character and natural surroundings, the inland town being far inferior in point of beauty to Durban. It is built upon a broad sloping plain and consists of eight parallel thoroughfares, about 180 yards from one another, which

¹ Appendix XXII. The distribution of population.

run along the slopes towards the eminence of Fort Napier. It is laid out according to the old Dutch fashion, and along the streets are oaks, blue-gums, and weeping willows, with water-furrows constructed by their sides. By many the site of Pietermaritzburg is preferred to that of Durban, as being at a higher elevation and therefore more healthy. Near Pietermaritzburg is Bishopstow and the Kaffir training college, well known as the residence of the late Bishop Colenso.

(9) Besides Durban and Pietermaritzburg the following towns and villages of Natal deserve mention. There is *Pinetown* in the Umlazi division with a population of 250 Europeans, situated on the rising ground seventeen miles from Durban, a village noted for its pine apples, growing in profusion along the slopes, its bananas, mangoes, oranges, and lemons. *Newcastle*, with a population of 400 Europeans, far in the north, and like its English namesake noted for its coal. Near Newcastle, 247 miles from Durban, are the fatal battle-fields of Ingogo, Lang Nek, and Majuba Hill. The village of *Howick* in the Pietermaritzburg division is situated on the Umgeni River, which rushes over a precipice of 360 feet, making the highest waterfall in South Africa. *Verulam* on the south coast lies in the midst of a fertile region, about twenty miles from Durban, and is the fourth largest town in Natal, with a population of 500 Europeans and 200 Indians. *Ladysmith* is an active bustling town, with a population of 2,000, two-thirds of whom are Europeans, situated on the main line and the point whence trade goes briskly on over the tall Drakenberg Mountains by passes into the Free State on the one side and the Transvaal on the other. In Weenen county the villages of Weenen, Estcourt, and Colenso are famed as pastoral and stock-breeding centres, lying on high

elevations and within reach of the Transvaal Gold Fields, which have exercised a great attraction upon the inhabitants. In Victoria county, named after the Queen, there is the great native location of Inanda. In the lower parts of this county there is the well-known Kearnsey estate, well suited for the growth of tea. The yield of this estate was 545 lbs. in 1882 and 250,000 lbs. in 1889. The village of Stanger close by has mournful associations of the Zulu war, the cemetery there containing many of our soldiers and officers who died in that campaign. Close by is the grave of the great Zulu chief Chaka.

(10) It must be remembered that there are three main strata or divisions in the population of Natal, (1) the European colonists, (2) the aboriginal Kaffirs, (3) the immigrant Indians, chiefly from Bombay. The last stratum is very remarkable, as it is of comparatively recent growth and promises to increase very rapidly, unless legislation steps in and prevents the further influx. The Mohammedan merchants, who conduct a very large retail trade with the Kaffirs and find their way along the eastern seaboard, are a conspicuous feature in the somewhat complex society of Natal. The streets of Durban offer many a varied study in ethnology, and the purely native stores and traffic recall to mind the pictures drawn in the sixteenth century, by the Portuguese, of the ancient Moorish merchants spreading the sails of their zambue or native craft along the coasts.

(11) The trade of Natal is almost exclusively with the mother-country¹. Out of a total import trade of £2,890,558 in 1888 no less than £2,420,189 came from the United Kingdom, and out of a total export trade of £1,417,871 (including £391,643 of raw gold shipped through her ports), no less than £1,264,188 was sent

¹ Appendix XXIII. Natal Trade, 1889-1890.

to England. Of the articles imported the most important were £295,348 worth of ready-made apparel, £290,370 worth of haberdashery and millinery, £179,935 worth of hardware and cutlery, £127,748 worth of cotton goods, £120,464 worth of iron, bar, fencing, £120,160 worth of manufactured leather, £109,912 worth of blankets and rugs, and £109,185 worth of machinery. Although Natal is a particularly favoured county as regards fruit and jams, she imported no less than £42,268; and although tea and coffee are 'cultivated in many places, she imported in 1888 £18,854 of manufactured tea and no less than £63,865 worth of coffee.

(12) With regard to her exports, her most valuable article is wool, of which she sent to England in 1888 no less than £745,749 worth out of a total value of £941,562 worth of exports, proving that her true wealth is pastoral. Hides and skins add another £70,000. The unrefined sugar exported amounted to £71,912, Angora hair to £21,610, maize to £12,443, arrowroot to £3,784, ivory (once a great source of wealth when the elephant abounded) to £2,183, and her tea only to £95. It is, however, with her coal that Natal intends, if possible, to win. In the district of Newcastle and around the sources of the Tugela River large stores of this precious fuel abound, and, with this trade in view, the railway has been pushed rapidly northwards. Even now it is said that good steam coal can be provided at Durban at the rate of 21s. the ton.

Colonel Tulloch, C.B., has thus described the coal fields of Natal. 'In Natal alone there are no less than 2,000 square miles of coal fields. The southern portion of the field comes within 160 miles of the sea, and there is now a railway right up to it from Durban. An enormous amount of coal is good steam coal. The last

trials showed that it was only 3 per cent. behind the best Welsh. . . In the course of my military duties I had to traverse fifty miles in a straight line across the field and found outcrops all the way. I went down one of the small mines at Dundee and found a splendid seam of coal, four feet thick, being worked by four Zulus. . . Some of the seams are no less than ten feet thick, and just behind the battle field of Isandlwana I found a fine coal outcrop in the Bashee ravine, and close to the historical mission house at Rorke's drift I noticed a rich ironstone ridge almost pure metal.'

(13) The revenue of Natal has increased very quickly of late years, owing to the discovery of the Transvaal gold-fields, to which one of the best routes lies through Natal territory.

The following table shows the rise for five years :—

	<i>Revenue.</i>	<i>Expenditure.</i>
1886	£600,000	£717,000
1887	924,000	689,000
1888	990,000	781,000
1889	1,327,105	1,146,079
1890	1,507,788	1,444,963

With regard to the revenue, it may be interesting to notice that, out of the total of £990,000 for the year 1888-89, railway receipts are the largest item, a sum of £349,000 being debited on this score to the Government, by whom all the railways are managed¹. Customs, the favourite method of raising revenue in all young countries, where direct taxation is either impossible to apportion fairly or unpopular to levy, reach the aggregate of £290,000; the return from land sales, an item of revenue only possible in young countries where the Crown has been able to hand over large spaces of un-

¹ See Appendix XXIII for Railway receipts, 1890.

occupied land, amounts to £26,000; the excise and wharf dues give over £19,000 each, and telegraphs and mail service £16,000 and £38,000 respectively. There is one item, however, peculiar to Natal, and this is the native hut-tax, which, levied on the Kaffirs in the reserves and locations at the rate of fourteen shillings on each hut, yields the respectable sum of £74,000, or nearly one-twelfth part of the revenue. It is not generally known that, by means of the hut-tax, and also with proceeds arising from fines and licences, the native population of Natal pay for their own government. To procure money wherewith to pay their hut-taxes, it is the custom of the natives to resort to such labour markets as Kimberley or Johannesburg, and aid in developing the mineral wealth of the country. In many ways the Kaffirs are very profitable servants.

(14) Under the head of expenditure, the most serious item is that of railways, on which the Government spent £247,000 in 1888 out of a total of £781,000, or nearly one-third of the whole. The Public Debt also was a drag upon the revenue of the country, the payments on it amounting to £197,000 for the same year. It must be remembered, however, that the public debt has been incurred for useful objects and such reproductive undertakings as railways. Salaries came to £172,000, Colonial Defence to £49,000, Education to £23,000, the Harbour Board to £20,000, Telegraphs to £13,000, and Immigration to £9,000. The whole amount of the Public Debt in Natal is over £5,000,000.

(15) *Railways.* There are three railways in Natal:—
(1) The main line from Durban to Pietermaritzburg, a distance of 71 miles, and thence in a north-west direction to Ladysmith, 190 miles on, with its terminus in the Newcastle district. When the coal mines are developed this railway will be extremely profitable. (2) The north

coast line, 19 miles long, leaving Durban and following the coast-line in the direction of Verulam and the Tugela, passing through the sugar districts. (3) The south coast line, from Durban to Isipingo, 12 miles. These railways are all single lines, with a 3 ft. 6 in. gauge, and on the main line no less than 85 miles are upon the grades as steep as one in sixty, 42 miles upon grades from one in thirty-nine to one in thirty-five. At a point 132 miles from Durban the line rises to a plateau of 5,152 feet.

(16) The permanent corps maintained by the Natal Government is known as the Natal Mounted Police, with a strength of 9 officers and 220 men. In addition, there are the Natal Cavalry Volunteers, known as the Natal Carbineers, numbering 381; the Natal Mounted Rifles, numbering 319; the Durban Volunteer Artillery, numbering 63; the Natal Naval Volunteers, numbering 72; the Natal Royal Rifles, numbering 436; amounting in all to a total available force of 1,491 men¹. Alone and unaided this force would seem very inadequate to keep in check the 400,000 Kaffirs within the borders of Natal, to say nothing of the Zulus in the adjoining districts of Zululand².

(17) From the above brief description of Natal, some general idea may be gained of the Colony. It is a European settlement in the midst of a black man's country, and the distinction between natives and Europeans is very much more sharp here than in Capetown or Port Elizabeth. The Kaffirs are under stricter discipline and surveillance at Natal. At 9 p.m., when the curfew sounds, the streets of Durban or Pietermaritzburg are supposed to be cleared of the natives. The franchise can scarcely be said to be a heritage for the

¹ 'Natal Almanac and Directory,' 1890, p. 390.

² Appendix XXIV. The Military Establishment in Natal.

Natal native. For the natives of the Transkei it is a more accessible privilege.

Although numbering only 40,000, the Natal colonists are the possessors of a large tract of country, in which great and valuable interests are involved. They have shown themselves active pioneers and bold settlers, daunted neither by the pressure of the native question nor by the inherent difficulties of their situation. Should their laudable ambition of making their coast and harbour the great shipping resort and coaling depôt of south-east Africa be attained, they are destined to occupy a still more important position than has fallen to their lot already. The area of Natal territory may be almost indefinitely increased in course of time by the admission of certain native areas, which are at present outside her boundaries on the north and south. If Pondoland were annexed, her responsibilities and task of government might be rendered heavier, but this should be more than compensated by the market, which every native district readily affords to Europeans, traders, and merchants¹.

Appendix XXV. Natal Industries.



CHAPTER XII.

THE DUTCH REPUBLICS.

(1) *The Transvaal or South African Republic.*

(2) *The Orange Free State.*

(1) THE Transvaal is an inland state lying to the north-east of the Cape Colony. It is bounded on the south by the Vaal River, on the west by British Bechuanaland and the Bechuanaland Protectorate as far as the junction of the Macloutsi River with the Limpopo or Crocodile River. Thence its northern boundary is the Limpopo as far as longitude 32° E. Its eastern boundaries are the Lebombo Ranges as far as the latitude of Lourenzo Marques. At this point, Swazieland, and then Zululand and Natal, form the east and south-east boundaries. The area of the Transvaal is about 125,000 square miles, and is about half the size of the Cape Colony. The whole of the country has been divided into 20,000 farms. It is conjectured that there are 60,000 Dutch Burghers in the Transvaal, of whom 10,000 are adults. In addition there are about 60,000 English-speaking inmigrants. There are said to be about 500,000 natives.

(2) The following are the chief periods of Transvaal history :—

i. In 1852 by the Sand River Convention the South African Republic began its existence.

ii. In 1860 Pretoria was chosen as the seat of government, and two then existing Boer Republics, one comprising the districts of Potchefstroom, Rustenburg, Pretoria, Zontspanberg, and the other comprising the

districts of Lydenburg and Utrecht, were united. The constitution flag and coat-of-arms of the South African Republic were then adopted by the United State.

iii. On April 12, 1877, Sir Theophilus Shepstone, armed with the necessary authority, annexed the country.

iv. The Transvaal War broke out in 1880-81, and on August 3, 1881, the Pretoria Convention was signed, by which complete self-government was given to the Transvaal, subject to the suzerainty of England.

v. On February 27, 1884, the London Convention supplemented the Pretoria Convention, and fresh definitions were given to the boundaries.

vi. On October 22, 1886, the Boer Republic established itself in Vryheid, a portion of Zululand.

For electoral purposes, the Republic has been divided into nineteen districts: Pretoria, Potchefstroom, Rustenburg, Lydenburg, Utrecht, Wakkerstroom, Waterberg, Bloemhof, Middelburg, Heidelberg, Standerton, Marico, Zoutspanberg, Ermelo, Lichtenberg, Piet Retief, Barberton, Johannesburg, and Vryheid.

(3) The principal towns in these districts are :—

1. *Pretoria*, the capital and seat of government, laid out originally in 1855, and named after Pretorius, a president of the first Transvaal Republic. The exact position of the town is latitude $25^{\circ} 44' 59''$ S. and longitude $28^{\circ} 25' 20''$ E., its elevation 4,000 feet above the sea level. The town itself is built in a hollow and is badly drained. The population is computed at 12,000. The nearest seaport is Delagoa Bay, a Portuguese possession, distant 240 miles on the east coast. Port Natal is 433 miles, Kimberley 300, and Capetown nearly 1,000 miles distant.

2. *Lydenburg* is the capital of the Lydenburg district, a division adjoining the Portuguese territories and about 180 miles north-east of Pretoria. It was in this division

that the natives rebelled against the first Dutch Republic, and, entrenching themselves in the rocky fastnesses, under the chief Sekukuni, defied the efforts of the Boers, and brought the whole commonwealth to the verge of ruin and bankruptcy. An expedition under Sir Garnet, now Lord Wolseley, stormed Sekukuni's kopjie or hill-fortress, with the aid of the Swazie contingent, and restored peace on the frontier.

3. *Utrecht* is the capital of a district of this name and adjoins the Colony of Natal, with which it carries on the chief part of its trade, the railway from Durban to Newcastle bringing Port Natal into communication. Close by is the German settlement of Luneburg.

4. *Klerksdorp* is a bustling town close to the Vaal River, with a population of 3,000 Europeans. It is on the main highway between Cape Colony and Pretoria.

5. *Potchefstroom*, close by, has a population of 2,000 inhabitants, and has been the scene of some of the most stirring events in Transvaal history. It was established in 1839 by the voertrekker, Hendrik Potgieter. It was besieged in 1862 during a civil war, in the time of the first Dutch Republic, and again in 1881, when it was held by the English under Colonel Winsloe for three months against the Boers. .

6. *Heidelberg* is situated about seventy miles from Potchefstroom and fifty-four from Pretoria. It is a rising town and is famed as a sanatorium for invalids. It is the centre of the Witwatersrand gold-bearing district.

(4) The greatest industry, however, of the Transvaal is gold mining, and the gold fields of South Africa occupy such an important place in the development of the country that they deserve a brief notice. Copper and diamonds have done an immense deal for the prosperity of the Cape Colony, gold promises to effect a revolution

in South Africa generally. Kimberley, as a mining centre, attracted trade, enterprise, and capital, and caused a railway to be constructed for the best part of a thousand miles through the desert; gold will prompt a still further extension, perhaps until the Victoria Falls are reached, the utmost regions of Mashonaland are explored, and the valley of the Zambesi is fully known. Of the three epochs of prosperity caused by copper, diamonds, and gold, it is probable that the gold epoch will be at once the most important and far-reaching in its influence.

From very early times gold has been found in south-east Africa, and natives have brought it down to the coast, finding it as an alluvial deposit. At the beginning of the present century, Lichtenstein, the medical adviser of De Mist, the last Dutch Governor of the Cape, is said to have found gold in the Warne Bokkeveldt, in the borders of the Cape Colony, and this gold is now in the Berlin Museum. In 1845 von Buch, the great German geologist, asserted that, from his observation, there was a great resemblance between the geological formation of South Africa and that of Australia and of the gold-bearing strata in the two lands. In 1864, Carl Mauch, a German mineralogist, made a tour across the Matabili country, and discovered the Tati gold fields; and in 1869, Baines and Nelson, the latter a Swedish mineralogist, who had worked for many years in California, found the more remote Mashona gold fields, distant 350 miles to the north-east of Tati. In 1869 Mr. Button, a Natal colonist, accompanied by Mr. Sutherland, a Californian miner, explored Lydenburg and Zoutspanberg on the north-east of the Transvaal. This was in the neighbourhood of Sekukuni's land, the Kaffir chieftain whom Lord Wolseley was sent out to subdue in 1875.

(5) The two chief mining centres in the Transvaal are, up to the present, Barberton and Johannesburg. With regard to the former a glance at the map will show that it lies at the extreme eastern borders of the Transvaal, and is best reached from Delagoa Bay. In fact, it may be said that the sudden development of Barberton opened the eyes of the mercantile world to the great value of this harbour, and prompted the Delagoa Bay railway, in recent times such an object of contention. Built by means of British and American capital on Portuguese territory, it has now come into the hands of Portugal. The Transvaal Government look upon this harbour as their natural outlet, and schemes have long been entertained by the President of the Republic to extend the Delagoa Bay railway from the Lebombo Mountains to Pretoria, and so command his own trade route to the sea. Like many other mining centres, Barberton sprang up almost within a few months. In 1883 only a few huts, composed of mud and wattle, indicated its position. The first mining camp of any importance was formed on farms belonging to Mr. Moodie, who had acquired a block 80,000 acres in extent. Here, in 1884, there was a rush of more than 1,000 diggers. Presently the famous Sheba mountain was discovered, and another rush was made here. For the time Barberton numbered a population of 4,000, and was the most important town in the Transvaal, and it has only recently yielded to the superior attractions of Johannesburg. The general name for these eastern fields is the De Kaap gold fields. De Kaap or the Cape is the name given by the Dutch to a high cliff or krantz, which is a most striking feature of the landscape. 'The view from its summit is one of the finest in South Africa. The calm peaceful looking valley, apparently undisturbed by the hand, and untrodden by

the foot of man, is stretched out like a panorama some 1,500 feet below. Its distant boundaries and landmarks appear much nearer than they really are when seen from this elevation; its hills and valleys look like small mounds and hollows, but are found upon closer acquaintance to be almost impassable. The streams show here and there like silver ribbons amidst the green veldt, which is further relieved by touches of red and yellow, due to exposures of soft rock cut into by sluits and dongas that are sometimes a hundred feet in depth. From this point one can plainly see Spitz Kop, Mauch's Berg, Tafelberg, the Umgane Range, and the prominent mountains of Amaswazieland. But the Kaap valley, picturesque as it looks, fertile and pleasant as it is, cannot be considered as habitable by white men, except during a portion of the year¹. Barberton itself is built on the slope of a hill, about 3,000 feet above the level of the sea. The valley below is drained by the affluents of the Crocodile River (not to be confused with the Crocodile or Limpopo on the north), which flows through Komatie Poort into Delagoa Bay. The Spitz Kop and Mauch Berg, visible from De Kaap, lie to the east of Lydenburg, where a different drainage and water system, viz., that of the Olifants River, which flows into the Limpopo, begins.

(6) Next to Kimberley, Johannesburg is the most wonderful town in South Africa. In September, 1886, its site was nothing but open veldt and a bleak plateau, 5,600 feet above the level of the sea. It was a part of the Transvaal which was held in such light esteem that, like the site of the diamond fields, it could have been bought at one time for the price of a few span of oxen. At the present time the population is estimated at about 30,000 persons. Churches have been built, banks,

¹ 'Argus Annual,' 1890, p. 510.

theatres, clubs, and a stock exchange have been erected, and the largest market square in South Africa reserved for a rapidly increasing business. The town is distant 298 miles from Kimberley, which can be reached only by coach or cart; and 945 miles from Capetown. In due course of time a railway will be extended from Kimberley to Johannesburg. Johannesburg is reached also from Port Natal, from which it is distant 400 miles by way of Newcastle, the extreme northern corner of Natal. From Port Elizabeth by way of Kimberley, Johannesburg is distant 776 miles. The shortest land journey is by Natal, the longest by Capetown. Port Natal, however, is three days further from England by sea than Table Bay. The average time taken to traverse the 6,896 miles that intervene between England and Johannesburg by way of Capetown is twenty-three days.

(7) It will be seen that Johannesburg occupies a fairly central position with regard to the rest of the colonies and states of South Africa, far more so than Barberton, whose position it has eclipsed. The high ground along which it is situated is called the Witwatersrand, i.e. the White-water-slope, the word Rand being applied by the Dutch to the slopes down which the river drainage flows, as in the Fish River Rand in the old colony, and the Suckerbosch (sugar-bush) Rand close to Johannesburg itself. The White-water Rand is the water divide which separates the head fountains of the Klip and Vaal Rivers on the south, and the Crocodile or Limpopo on the north, and is, as already stated, at a high elevation. It runs parallel with the Magaliesberg or Cashan Mountains, which lie at right angles to the main Drakenberg range, and have been for long time the hunting-ground of many English sportsmen, notably of Captain Harris.

The following is a brief description of the geology of this country :—

‘The geological formation consists of a series of strata of sandstone, quartzite, slate, and conglomerate, all evidently deposited quietly by water. Part of the northern and eastern edge of this basin has been tilted up to an angle of 25 to 45 degrees from the horizontal by the irruption of diorite, and it is probable that the remaining portion of this vein will also be found tilted up, forming a basin over 100 miles long, east and west, and forty miles wide north and south. The dip on the northern edge is to the south, and on the eastern edge to the west. Johannesburg is on the extreme northern edge of this basin.’ The gold is contained in the conglomerate strata in quantities which vary from a trace to eight ounces per ton. These conglomerate veins are called ‘banket’ reefs, from their likeness to the ‘almond rock’ sweetmeat, and are composed of a number of pebbles, the cementing matrix being composed of oxide of iron, sand, and clay.

(8) On the west of the Transvaal, at the sources of the Great Marico River, the most important western tributary of the Limpopo, are the Malmani gold-fields. They are not far from Mafeking, one of the headquarters of British occupation in Bechuanaland. In the case of a railway extension northwards through Vryburg, the Malmani gold fields will be brought into close communication with Kimberley. Other places in the Transvaal where gold has been found are Marabastad and Ersteling, in the Zoutspanberg district, west of the Murchison Range; also Klerksdorp in the Potchefstroom district, along the Vaal River and to the south-west of the Witwatersrand.

The following is the value of gold exported through the Cape Colony and Natal from 1882–1891 inclusive—

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Natal.</i>	<i>Cape Colony.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
1882	£ 6,865	£ 15,175	£ 22,040
1883	20,293	10,164	30,457
1884	16,708	22,297	39,005
1885	52,222	17,321	69,543
1886	113,166	21,603	134,769
1887	143,551	92,936	236,487
1888	392,018	516,676	908,694
1889	584,933	860,271	1,445,204
1890	358,520	1,498,280	1,856,800
1891	114,363	2,678,104	2,792,472

(9) Within a few years, therefore, it will be seen that the Transvaal has leaped from a state of abject poverty to extraordinary wealth. The precious metal which has given her such pre-eminence amongst South African States has been brought to light almost solely by British and European capitalists. That Republic which, under President Burgers, had an absolutely empty exchequer, soon became the envy of its poorer neighbours¹. The policy of the President was long directed to keeping out the influx of Europeans, but he has had to yield to the force of events. Before long the Transvaal must be brought into communication with the outer world by way of Delagoa Bay, Port Natal, and the Free State. The railway systems of Natal and the Cape Colony will be extended northwards and eastwards, and the high and healthy plateaux of the Transvaal filled, it must be hoped, with a prosperous and industrious population. The discovery of gold must react favourably upon other industries, and especially agriculture. Whilst the southern districts are peculiarly adapted to stock-raising and the growth of all products that belong to the temperate zone, the northern districts will produce such tropical products as cotton, coffee, and sugar-cane.

(10) It has been the desire of some Transvaal patriots to develop a self-contained country of their own, which,

¹ Appendix XXVI. Transvaal Finance.

isolated politically from the rest of South Africa, will have access to the sea by way of Swazieland and Delagoa Bay, and thus secure to them their own customs, revenue, and port dues. It is clear, however, that such a state as the Transvaal would be unable to depend upon its own means of coast and naval defence, and could, only at the best, ally itself for this purpose with some European power. Such an alliance, England, as the supreme and paramount power in South Africa, could not countenance. The Transvaal, therefore, by her very geographical position, should throw her lot in-ultimately with the neighbouring South African states. As an inland state, she must give as well as take. If the maritime states grant a rebate in her favour on imported goods, the Transvaal should lend herself to every railway project and commercial undertaking that will benefit these states. Thus, a kind of commercial reciprocity, founded in every particular upon fair consideration of mutual interests, should be the policy of the future. In fact, the broad features of this policy of give and take already appear in South Africa, and railway extensions are sanctioned by the Transvaal Government (1891). The arguments that apply to the Transvaal Republic, apply equally, although the interests are not at present so great, to the neighbouring republic of the Orange Free State.

(11) *Delagoa Bay.* In connection with the Transvaal, some mention must be made of the important harbour and position of Delagoa Bay, in its political and commercial aspect. It is the natural seaport of the Transvaal, and is in Portuguese hands, forming part of the Province of Mozambique. England laid claim to this harbour in 1875, but, on going to arbitration, the case was given against her, by what was known as the Macmahon verdict, the French marshal of that name being the arbitrator. Upon the discovery of the Transvaal gold

fields, its value was seen at once, and the project of a railway connecting the port with the Transvaal, which was undertaken on behalf of the first South African Republic by President Burgers, in 1875, was again mooted. In 1883 the Portuguese granted a concession for ninety years to a company got up by Colonel Macmurdo, an American, having a capital of £500,000. The money was advanced chiefly by British and American capitalists. The line was commenced in 1887, and was pushed forward so rapidly by Sir Thomas Tancred and his staff, that it was open for traffic in November, 1888, along the whole length of fifty-two miles, connecting the Portuguese town of Lorenzo Marques with the Lebombo Mountains. A dispute arose between the Company and the Portuguese Government on some technical points in the contract, which ended in the seizure of the line by the Portuguese Government. The seizure was made under protest from the English officials, and the whole case has been referred to arbitration¹.

Sooner or later a line will be completed between Pretoria and Delagoa Bay. The distance is 346 miles, and the main difficulties of the route are passed when the Komatie Poort or defile is passed and the heights of the Lebombo Mountains are scaled.

The Orange Free State.

(12) The Orange Free State, like the Transvaal, is an inland state, bounded on the south by the Orange River, which separates it from the Cape Colony, on the west by the Province of Griqualand West and the Vaal River, on the north by the Transvaal, and on the east by the high mountain ranges of the Drakenberg, which

¹ Appendix XXVII. Delagoa Bay.

separate it from Natal ; and on the extreme south-east by Basutoland, a native territory under the Crown of England. The area of the Free State has been computed at 72,000 square miles, and is therefore about half the size of the sister republic of the Transvaal. According to a census, taken recently, there were 69,217 Europeans and 66,731 natives. The revenue of the Free State is much smaller than that of the Transvaal, the amount of receipts in 1889 being only £272,314.

(13) The following dates are useful to remember in connection with the history of this Republic :—In 1838, the emigrant Boers left the old Colony for the north-east and Natal. In 1843, Natal was proclaimed a British Colony, and the Boers ‘trekked’ back towards the Orange River and founded the Orange Free State. In 1848, the battle of Boomplaats was fought, in which the British, under Sir Harry Smith, defeated the Boers and proclaimed the British Sovereignty. In 1854, the British abandoned the Free State, or ‘The Sovereignty,’ as it was called, and handed it back to the Boers. The proclamation of April 8, 1854, is the charter of the Boers’ independence. By the second Article of the Convention, then signed, England actually endeavoured to cut herself off from native responsibilities. It runs thus :—

Article 2. ‘The British Government has no alliance whatever with any native chiefs or tribes to the northward of the Orange River, with the exception of the Griqua chief, Adam Kok ; and Her Majesty’s Government has no wish or intention to enter hereafter into any treaties which may be injurious or prejudicial to the interest of the Orange River Government.’

(14) The tenor and spirit of this stipulation agrees with Article 3 of the Sand River Convention (1852), entered into between the British Government and the Transvaal emigrant Boers, and it runs thus :—

‘Her Majesty’s Assistant Commissioners hereby disclaim all alliances whatever, and with whomsoever, of the coloured tribes, to the north of the Vaal River.’

These two Articles—one with the Free State and the other with the Transvaal Government—agreed upon in 1854 and 1852, respectively, prove that the policy of England was at that time to check expansion to the north.

For little over thirty years the Orange Free State has had an independent existence, and has prospered fairly well, gaining most of its prosperity from the diamond fields. It is hemmed in on every side, except on the north, by British territory.

(15) The Free State is divided into the following seventeen districts: Bloemfontein, Caledon River, Fauresmith, Harrismith, Winburg, Kroonstad, Boshof, Philipopolis, Bethulie, Jacobstadt, Rouxville, Bethlehem, Ladybrand, Heilbron, Hoopstad, Wepener, Moroka.

The principal towns in these districts are:—

1. *Bloemfontein*, the capital and seat of government. The town stands upon a large plain, at a high elevation, and contains about 3,400 inhabitants. It is ninety miles from Kimberley, 738 from Capetown, and 400 from Durban. It is much resorted to by English invalids, on account of its high and healthy position, and has numerous colleges and schools, and is especially noted for the English Bloemfontein Mission.

2. *Harrismith*, a town called after Sir Harry Smith, a former English Governor at the Cape, is situated on the top of the Drakenberg, at an altitude of 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, and close to the Natal border. The climate here is extremely healthy, it being on the main lines of communication between the gold fields, Pretoria, Pietermaritzburg, and Durban; the place is very prosperous, the number of waggons that passed

from van Reenen's Pass in 1888 being 13,287, and the loads they carried being equal to 33,000 tons, showing how important a part the slow ox-waggon plays in the development of South Africa.

3. *Winburg*, the oldest town in the Free State, and seventy miles to the north-east of Bloemfontein, is the centre of a great sheep and cattle district.

4. *Jagers-Fontein*, a town in the district of Fauresmith, and seventy-five miles to the south-west of Bloemfontein, is famed for its diamonds, about £20,000 worth being produced every month.

5. *Ladybrand*, so called after the wife of the late President Brand, lies about seventy miles to the east of Bloemfontein, and close to the Basutoland border and the Maluti mountains.

6. *Bethlehem* lies 138 miles to the north-east of Bloemfontein, and is called the Granary of the Free State.

7. *Bethulie* is close to the Orange River, on the south, and not far from Colesberg in the Cape Colony. This town will be brought immediately into connection with the railway system of the Cape Colony, and will be linked on the north with Bloemfontein, the line passing close to the famous battle-field of Boomplaats, and pointing towards the Transvaal.

(16) The Orange Free State is, upon the whole, a very prosperous and contented little state. Its proximity to the Kimberley diamond mines has brought it great wealth, the farmers, gardeners, and agriculturists finding there a most profitable market for their produce. The Free State, moreover, has had the singular good fortune to have been administered by President Brand in past years, a most excellent and able administrator, who guided the country through many trying crises. Unlike the Transvaal, the Free State has enjoyed a quiet and pastoral existence, such as the Dutch Boers of South

Africa like best, and has not been disturbed and excited by the influx of restless Europeans. Few places are more pleasant and more healthy to live in than the numerous up-country towns and villages of the Free State, especially along the northern and eastern borders. The Freestaters, from some reason or other, have settled down to their independent life far more peaceably than the Boers of the Transvaal. We do not hear of such continual treks from the former as from the latter state. No matter what the form of government is, whether elected by their own choice or imposed upon them by others, the Transvaalers cannot shake off that strange migratory instinct that sends them far afield to the north. The solution of a religious motive prompting them to move their tents and wander still further in search of a promised land cannot be accepted. It would appear to be the spirit of complete lawlessness, which has become inveterate after their wanderings in past times, far from all control.

(17) The citizens of the Free State, unlike their brethren of the Transvaal, are not troubled with a native question. In fact, they have scarcely enough natives to fill their labour markets. They have passed strict laws with regard to them, and natives travelling through the State are required to hold a pass, bearing a shilling stamp. There is a law also which restricts the number of native huts upon each farm. The wages of native farm servants average about 20s. a month with food, town servants 15s. to 18s. a week without food. The Free State derives revenue from its native population. It levies a hut-tax of 10s., and a poll-tax of 10s., and gathers from these sources a sum of £8,000—£10,000 a year. The natives are under the rule of a Commandant, whose yearly salary is £300 per annum. This is the only direct payment made by the Free State to the expenses

of their native department. The natives are not allowed to acquire landed property, except under very vexatious restrictions. They have no part or share in the government of the country.

(18) The form of a Boer Government, both in the *Free State* and the *Transvaal*, is simple in itself. The *Volksraad*, or assembly of the people, is the supreme power, and all 'white' persons, either born in the State, or who have resided any time in it, or have fixed property or leases of fixed property, are burghers and qualified to vote for the election of members of the *Volksraad* and for the State President. The President's term of office lasts five years, and he, with the advice and consent of the Executive, can proclaim martial law, declare war, conclude peace, and is, together with the Executive Council, responsible to the *Volksraad*. The Executive Council consists of the State President as chairman, the Government Secretary and the Landdrost of the capital, and three unofficial members, who are elected by the *Volksraad*, one every year, for the term of three years. The members of the *Volksraad* are chosen for four years from every district, town, and ward, or field cornetcy in the country districts. The yearly revenue is raised by quit-rents on farms, stamp duties, various licenses, and hut-tax¹.

(19) The remarkable feature of a Boer Republic is its military organisation. Every burgher or colonist between eighteen and sixty years of age can be called upon to serve on a *commando*. The whole country being divided into districts, and these districts being subdivided into wards, each of these wards elects a *field-cornet*, who has military duties when a *commando* is called out. The *commandant* is the officer who takes the chief command of the *field-cornets*. Such an arrangement was, in the

first instance, rendered necessary by the presence of the natives. Another peculiarity about the Dutch Republics has been, and still to a great extent is, their intensely Protestant character. In the old republican Grondwet of the Transvaal the qualifications of membership of the Volksraad were (1) burghership for three years; (2) possession of fixed property; (3) membership of the Protestant Church.

(20) The Government of the Boer Republics differs in many respects from that of the Cape Colony, with its bold assertion of abstract rights for black and white alike, with its pushing commercial element, and generally more advanced civilisation. The question is, how long will they remain unaffected by the quickened pulsation of a more complicated political life close to their borders? Railways and telegraphs have done much already to destroy the archaisms of the veldt, and must do a great deal more. There will, however, be no struggle over democratic principles among the white people themselves; there may be a dispute about the advisability of lavishing the franchise upon the native. It is the question of the native vote which may prevent any speedy assimilation of the two kinds of government.



CHAPTER XIII.

THE NATIVE STATES AND PROTECTORATES.

(1) The indigenous population of South Africa may be divided generally into two large classes: (1) The Bushmen, Hottentots, Korannas, Griquas or Bastards.

(2) The Bantú or Kaffir tribes. The former are the true aborigines of the country, and it was roving bands of Hottentots and Bushmen, mixed together, that the first Dutch colonists met in the vicinity of Table Bay. Those who lived near the sea-coast would appear to have been most degraded, as they are to this day in Great Namaqualand on the west coast¹. The Hottentots generally may be said to bear the same relation to the inland tribes as the Celts in West Europe bear to the Teutons. Everywhere they were pressed to the desert countries or to the most inaccessible places. The Hottentots and their congeners were found principally on the west of the continent, the Bantú or Kaffir races on the east, and in Damaraland and Ovampoland on the north. The Swedish traveller Sparrman, who wrote about 1775-1776, found the dividing line between the two races some distance to the west of the Fish River Valley. In appearance, custom, manners, and character, they were very different. From the remarks already made on their language it may be seen that the Bushmen were always a very degraded type, living almost entirely by hunting, and never getting beyond the purely nomadic life. The term Hottentot, or Hüttentüt, a word meaning stutters or stammerers, was a name given to this race by the early Dutch explorers on account of the curious clicks or sounds in their language. The Hottentots, from time immemorial, pastured large herds and flocks, and had frequent intercourse with the first South African settlers, bartering their stock for European goods. They called themselves 'Khoi-Khoi,' a term meaning men of men; but termed the Bushmen 'Sän,' and reckoned them lower than dogs². Originally the Khoi-khoi and the Sän were possibly of one race and probably spoke one

¹ Theal's 'Compendium of South African History,' p. 48.

² Notice of Dr. Hahn's work, 'Cape Quarterly Review,' April, 1882.

language, but while the former led a pastoral and agricultural life, the latter always remained hunters.

(2) The Hottentots have merged with the Europeans, and are a very useful class¹. In the 1891 census summaries they represented just one sixth part of the 301,385 credited to 'All other coloured persons,' being more numerous than Malays or Indians. But there were only 5,296 Bushmen left in the Cape Colony in 1891, and they lived a separate existence far to the north-west of the Cape Colony and on the borders of the Kalahari Desert. Like the Australian aborigines, they seem destined to become extinct. Their language, myths, cave-paintings, and modes of life, representing as they do the lowest type of mankind, are interesting chiefly to philosophers. They possess most wonderful powers of vision, and can track animals over the hard surface of the veldt with unerring skill. They have an intimate knowledge of the plants and herbs of the field, and tip their arrows with the deadliest poison extracted from them. But there has never been a single instance of a civilised Bushman. As children of the desert they will live and die. The frontier farmer, armed with better weapons, has hastened their extinction, and in a few years this strange diminutive race, with its quaint inarticulate language resembling Herodotus' description of the Troglydites, who 'jabbered like bats,' will disappear.

(3) The great Kaffir, or Bantû race, are a very different people. Alone amongst the savages of the world they refuse to die out before the advance of the white man. They are of a higher type than the Red Indians of North America, the Australian aborigines, and even the New Zealand Maories. By some they have been reckoned superior to the Hindoo and Malay races. As it has been one of the past difficulties of England to conquer them,

¹ Appendix XXIX.

so it will be a future difficulty how to train and educate them. The Kaffirs are a migratory race who have come down from South Central Africa only within recent times. They have no word by which to signify the whole race, but each tribe has its own title, which is usually the name of its first great chief with the plural prefix Ama, Aba, or Imi. Thus the Ama Xosa would mean the family or clans of the great chief Xosa. The Attila of the Kaffirs was Chaka, a Zulu potentate, who destroyed ruthlessly every tribe that opposed him. His grave is pointed out near Stanger, on the Natal side of the Lower Tugela. He is said to have killed tens of thousands of men in his wars from 1812 to 1828, and to have extended his sway over the whole of south-east Africa from the Limpopo or Crocodile River to the Fish River. It was impossible for this vast dominion, founded on bloodshed and terror, to last, and it fell into different parts.

(4) The numbers and names of the different Bantû clans and tribes are very puzzling, and it may be convenient to arrange them under the following classes and divisions.

I. On the eastern slopes of the Drakenberg and in the vicinity of the sea are the Pondos, the natives of Tembuland, Bomvanaland, the Transkei and Griqualand East. In the interior and at the back of the Drakenberg are the numerous Basuto clans. Collectively these areas form a distinct block of native territory, bounded by Natal on the north, the Free State on the west and north-west, the Cape Colony on the south, and the Indian Ocean on the east. Politically this block is subdivided into three groups: (a) the Transkei, Tembuland, Griqualand East, governed by the Cape Colony; (b) Pondoland is a quasi-independent state, although soon likely to be merged into the area of

Cape Colony or Natal; (c) Basutoland is administered under the direct authority of the Crown.

II. To the north of Natal and interposed as a block between the Portuguese boundaries on the one hand, and the Transvaal on the other, there are the three native territories of (a) Zululand, a maritime country; (b) Amatongaland, also a maritime tract thrust in between the shallow lagoon of St. Lucia Bay on the south and the country round Delagoa Bay on the north; (c) Swazieland, an inland tract of country abutting on the Transvaal. All these territories are under direct British rule.

III. The third great division includes (a) the inland territories coming under the definitions of the Bechuanaland Protectorate; (b) Khama's country to the north, and stretching up to the Zambesi Falls; (c) Matabililand, also a continental division, including roughly the vast area to the east of Bechuanaland and Khama's country, and covering the territories between the Limpopo and the Zambesi. To the east of this again lies Mashonaland, and the sphere of country occupied by the South African Company, which, with Manicaland, Gazaland, and Umzila's kingdom, deserve a separate notice. Of the above territories, the Bechuanaland Protectorate, and the Crown Colony of British Bechuanaland, are under British control. Khamaland is also in its widest extent a sphere of British influence, and the passport of an Englishman can take him to the Falls of Zambesi and to the remotest corners of the Kalahari Desert.

(5) To these we may add the Ovaherero or Damaras. They are found chiefly in the German Hinterland, north of the Orange River, and are the first of the black races on the west which the traveller meets after passing through the yellow races which lie scattered over that wide tract of country which extends for 200 miles

north of the Orange River and includes Great Namaqualand and a large portion of the Kalahari Desert. The Damaras are a purely pastoral people, and possess great wealth in cattle and sheep. Their neighbours to the north are the group of tribes generally known as Ovambos. These, like the Kaffirs on the eastern frontier, are an agricultural people, and seem always to have been so, whilst the Damaras have no traditions of being other than a pastoral people. They are known to have migrated from the north or north-east, probably in the seventeenth century. The cradle of the race may have been in the land adjoining the waters of the Muta Nzige, in the country of the Wazimba, recently explored by Stanley¹. The name Herero is conjectured to be onomatopoeic, reproducing the whirring sound of the broad-bladed assegai as it was thrown by the warriors.

(6) To take the native districts and territories in the above-named order, the Transkei, Tembuland, Griqualand East fall under the rule of the Cape Colony, and are divided officially into the districts of Kentani, Willowvale, Fingoland, and Idutywa Reserve. The Transkei is a strip of country along the eastern littoral, lying between the Kei River and the Bashee, with an area of 3,000 square miles, and a population of 80,000. The whole of this country once belonged to the paramount chief Kreli, of the Gealeka tribe. The name Gealekaland has disappeared, and the land is divided into the two magisterial districts of Kentani and Willowvale. In the midst of the natives are reserves for European settlers and farmers, it being considered advisable to keep the areas of occupation distinct.

Another part of the Transkei is known as Fingoland. The Fingoes were a Kaffir clan who were driven out by the Zulus from their own country, and made the

¹ 'Folk-lore Journal,' Capetown, vol. i. p. 38, part iii.

slaves of the conquerors. They were loyal to the British in the Kaffir war of 1846, and received land as a reward.

The Idutywa Reserve includes a mixed population of Fingoes, Gcalekas, and Tslambies, who were rewarded for loyalty to the British Resident in 1856. The Transkei is governed by eight magistrates in the pay of the Colonial Government.

Tembuland includes the districts known formerly as Tembuland Proper, Emigrant Tembuland, Bomvanaland. The population is calculated to be about 90,000. This country is governed by eight magistrates and other clerks, &c., in the pay of the Colonial Government. Griqualand East lies between the Drakenberg, Natal, Pondoland, and Tembuland, and has an area of 6,000 square miles, and a population of 100,000. The capital of this district is Kokstadt, the headquarters of two or three troops of the Cape Mounted Rifles. It is inhabited by many Kaffir clans, the Pondomesi, Xesibi, Amabaca, and Griquas. The two southern districts of Griqualand East, Mount Frere and Endambeni, adjoin Pondoland, the quasi-independent native state. The Xesibis, living in the latter district, are constantly at feud with the Pondos, their neighbours, and threatening to embroil the Colony in a native war. This district is governed by nine magistrates in the pay of the Cape Government.

(7) Pondoland is a densely populated native territory, still enjoying a kind of independence under its hereditary chiefs. In recent years the paramount chief was Umquikela, who was incapable of governing his nation well, and, in consequence of many treaty violations and the illicit trade which was carried on in the country, British sovereignty was proclaimed in 1878 over the tidal estuary of the St. John's River, and residents were placed with Umquikela. The strip of

country extends about nine miles up the river, and is about two miles wide. Umquikela died in 1887, and was succeeded by his son Sigcau. By treaty obligations with Great Britain, the Pondo paramount chief is secured within his present boundaries provided he undertakes to give up fugitives from justice, to discourage war, to protect traders, missionaries, and travellers, to restore stolen cattle traced over the boundary, and to furnish forces when necessary for the protection of the Colony. It is calculated that the population of Pondo is over 200,000.

(8) Basutoland has been termed not inaptly the Switzerland of South Africa, as it is here that the ranges of the eastern mountain system are highest. Generally speaking, the country may be described as three large valleys or districts, running north-west and south-east, the easternmost of which is bounded by the Quathlamba or Drakenberg range; the second lies between the Maluti or Double Mountains, and the Molappo range; and the third district, which is the best known and most populous, lies between the Molappo mountains and the borders of the Free State. In this last district there are a number of isolated hills of peculiar formation, which admit of being fortified with comparatively little trouble. Such a hill as Thaba Bossigo has been held by the Basutos against many attacks of the Europeans. On these mountain fastnesses the Basuto chiefs have lived in security, pasturing large herds of cattle along the slopes and summits. Like mountaineers elsewhere, they have developed a sturdy and uncompromising character, and are proud of their country. The average elevation is 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, and the climate is extremely healthy and invigorating. The area of the country is about 10,000 square miles, measuring in length about 150 and in breadth 50 miles.

The most thickly populated part of it lies along the Free State border. The population of Basutoland is estimated at 175,000, and the value of their property at nearly a million.

Basutoland, once under the Cape Colony, is now administered by the Imperial Government, and is divided into the following magistracies or districts :—

1. *Maseru*, the chief station, with a population of 600, is distant 72 miles from Bloemfontein in the Free State. About 24 miles south of *Maseru* is *Moriya*, the oldest missionary station in *Basutoland*, the date of its foundation being 1833. The religious teaching of the country has been almost entirely in the hands of the French Protestants.

2. *Mafeteng* is about 50 miles south of Maseru and close to the borders of the Free State. The Basutos in this district number about 10,000, and live under a chief of the name of Lerothodi. In this district are Cornet Spruit, after the river of that name, and Mohali's Hoek, and Quthing, all forming the southern and better-known portion of Basutoland.

3. *Leribe* is the northern district of Basutoland, with an estimated population of 50,000. Thlotse Heights, the seat of the magistracy, is 50 miles distant from Maseru, the same distance as Mafeteng from that place. This district is well adapted for stock and also for wheat-growing. In fact the whole of Basutoland has been frequently termed the Granary of South Africa.

(9) The Basutos are most intelligent and industrious natives, and show in a most marked degree to what a high pitch of civilisation they can reach. The Basutos must be regarded as the most progressive of all the Kaffir clans. The Hon. J. X. Merriman, a former Cape Minister, has thus attested to their capacity for progress. 'In 1869 the British Government extended their pro-

tection over the Basuto people, who were then utterly beggared, homeless, and starving. In ten years' time, under the Pax Britannica and wise care of the Imperial and Colonial Governments, the trade of Basutoland had grown, according to the most competent judges, to the value of half a million sterling, and the Basutos themselves were the most industrious people and the largest producers, whether white or black, in South Africa. I saw the tribe in 1869 when Sir Philip Wodehouse proclaimed the sovereignty. They were starving savages, and there was not a trader's shop in the territory. In 1879, ten years later, the country was filled with traders, several of whom had stocks of manufactured goods from £20,000 to £50,000 in value, while clothes, saddles, ploughs, and other articles of European manufacture found ready sale. The Basutos were only 150,000 in number—a mere handful compared with the millions in Africa; but I think our experience there teaches us a useful lesson of the enormous trade value which these native races may yet become to the mother-country, and points a lesson which deserves study to those who wonder whether any good thing can come out of Africa¹. The same prosperity which attended Basutoland from 1869 to 1879 has also been her lot of recent years.

(10) The following is a brief epitome of the history of these interesting clans now repaying European care and attention. (1) At first the Basutos were brought to the lowest possible ebb through the attacks of the Free State Boers in the war of 1865-66. (2) The pitiable condition of these Highlanders, fighting for bare existence amongst their crags and mountains, excited the compassion of Sir Philip Wodehouse, and on March 12, 1868, they were taken by him under the direct protection of the British

¹ 'Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute,' November, 1884-5.

Government. (3) In 1870 the Basutos were annexed to the Cape Colony. (4) In 1880 the Cape Colonists endeavoured to enforce the provisions of a Disarmament Act, but the provisions of this Act were resisted by the Basutos for two years, who adopted, under their chiefs, the old policy of fortifying Thaba Bossigo and other mountain fortresses. It was during this war that General Gordon undertook a mission to the refractory chiefs, with the object of conciliating them, but failed, chiefly owing to the lukewarm support given him by the Cape Ministry. (5) The fifth period of Basuto history is that beginning with their return to the direct control of the Home Government. The provisions of the 1871 Annexation Act have been repealed, and the Basutos seem abundantly satisfied with their political status under Imperial officers, and are devotedly loyal to the great mother across the water, as the Queen is termed.

(11) The clan system still prevails in Basutoland, and the natives are encouraged in the arts of self-government. The 'Pitso' is a kind of national assembly where chiefs, headmen and others openly discuss matters of common interest. The Basutos are unusually gifted with eloquence, and can argue most keenly, displaying a forensic talent hardly conceivable in such savages. Their gestures are theatrical, and their language adorned in a wonderful degree with metaphors and pictures. This native assembly has been likened to the Witenagemot of our forefathers, or to the Gerusia of the ancient Greeks. Here the chiefs adjudicate upon all matters between natives, but there is a right of appeal to the magistrates' courts. For some time the war fever, caused by the two years' conflict of 1880-82, unsettled the native mind, but things have settled down in Basutoland. 'Law and order have been restored, serious crime is rare, and the drinking habits, which threatened to destroy

the Basuto people, have been practically abandoned, owing to the influence of the leading chiefs, the missionaries, and the Government. There is now not a single canteen in the country. The area under cultivation steadily increases, and there is less and less tendency to stock-thieving and petty warfare. Excellent work is being carried on in the country by missionaries, in whose hands the labour of education is almost completely vested. There are eighty-eight schools, with 4,427 scholars, nine-tenths of them being in the schools of the French Protestant Mission. The roads in the country are now in good condition for any kind of transport¹. Altogether the experiment now undertaken in Basutoland by the Imperial Government is of the most gratifying nature, and from it we may argue that what has been done in Basutoland may also be done in Zululand, Bechuanaland, Mashonaland and elsewhere. The experiment costs nothing, as the levying of hut-taxes, fines, and licenses is sufficient to meet the cost of government. The revenue of Basutoland in 1887-88 was £30,102, its expenditure £30,586.

(12) Zululand.—This country was the centre of an independent native dynasty up to 1879, when, in the Governorship of the late Sir Bartle Frere, the British were brought into contact with it. Cetywayo, the paramount chief then ruling in Zululand, had been crowned in 1873 under the auspices and with the consent of the British Government. But in the whole region, stretching from the Tugela to Delagoa Bay, Cetywayo's word was law. He was supported by an army of 40,000 warriors who constituted a standing menace to the neighbouring territories. The result of the Zulu war is well known. Cetywayo was dethroned and carried captive to Capetown, and the task of settling Zululand devolved

¹ 'Argus Annual,' 1890, p. 48.

upon Lord Wolseley. He divided the land amongst thirteen kinglets and chiefs. This plan did not succeed, and many feuds were fought out amongst the Zulus themselves. Part of Zululand near the south Tugela was ruled by an Englishman named John Dunn, and his territory was known as Dunnsland. Pressure was brought upon the English Government to restore Cetywayo, and he came back to his country. But his power was broken, and shortly after his return he died. The Boers from the Transvaal intrigued in this unfortunate country, and set up a puppet king called Dinizulu. They managed also to obtain possession in 1885-86 of a part of Zululand, and to incorporate it with the Transvaal territory. It is now called Vryheid, and is some of the best pasturing country in Zululand. In May 1887, Sir A. Havelock, the Governor of Natal, proclaimed British sovereignty over Zululand. Land was declared to be inalienable, and a system of taxation was introduced. The country was divided into six magisterial districts, the chief of which is at Etshowe.

(13) Tongaland.—This native territory was taken over by the English in 1887. It is described in the treaty as lying north of Zululand, bounded by the Indian Ocean on the east, and by the Portuguese territory of Lorenzo Marques on the north, and by the Swazie country on the west. The treaty was made with Zambili the Regent of her son Ungwase. The Regent undertakes not to sell, alienate or cede any part of the Tonga territory without the previous knowledge and consent of Her Majesty's High Commissioner of South Africa. The Tongas are a more peaceful and industrious race than the Zulus, and often flock to the labour markets of the adjoining Colonies. Their country lies low along the shore, and is unhealthy for Europeans. It is said that there are possibilities of constructing a harbour at the mouth of

the Kosi River, and by this way opening up communication with the Transvaal.

(14) Swazieland.—This tract of country is inhabited by the Swazies, a fierce and warlike race, supposed to number 60,000. Their independence under their chiefs was guaranteed to them in 1884, by a Convention entered into between the Transvaal Republic and the British Government. For many years the Swazies have been the allies of the English, and in 1879 assisted the English troops to attack the hill-fortress of the well-known chief named Sekukuni. As their country has gold mines it has been largely resorted to by adventurers and concessionaires. There are supposed to be about 500 Europeans in the district. The country itself covers an area of 8,000 square miles, and has been under the rule of the Chief Undambeni, who succeeded his father in 1876. The land is much coveted by the Dutch Republic which adjoins it, as it lies between their eastern boundaries and the sea. The native government has been much deranged by intriguing Europeans, and by the misgovernment of the Swazie king, who is a very incapable savage. At present it is governed jointly by representatives of the Dutch Republic and by English officials.

(15) Bechuanaland.—The Bechuanaland Protectorate was proclaimed by Sir Charles Warren in September, 1885, and extends from lat. 29° S. to lat. 22° S. and from long. 20° E. to the borders of the Transvaal Republic along the Limpopo River. Under the term of the Bechuanaland Protectorate we include British Bechuanaland, a slice of territory in the south-east corner, and bounded on the north by the Molopo River, as well as the more extensive plains adjoining and included in Khama's country. The area of British Bechuanaland is 45,000 square miles, that of the whole area covered by

the Proclamation 175,000 square miles¹. The general character of the country is that of an elevated plateau averaging 4,000 to 5,000 feet above the sea level. It is a healthy country and adapted to Europeans. Bechuanaland occupies a central position with regard to the rest of South Africa. It is 700 miles from Walvisch Bay on the west, 400 miles from Port Nolloth on the south-west, and 730 from Capetown. The southern border is only 90 miles from the great diamond mining centre of Kimberley. As the railway is in direct communication with Capetown this distant region is very accessible. In the recent Bechuanaland expedition Sir Charles Warren was able to place the head of his column on the Orange River, once the Ultima Thule of colonisation, within a month of leaving England. In six weeks' time after this he had assembled a body of 5,000 men on the Vaal River. This quick mobilisation baffled the Boers, and effectually prevented their fighting. Railways are most useful public works and are of the utmost assistance to emigrants and soldiers. The 'Riel' rebellion in Canada (1884-85) was quickly terminated owing to the unrivalled advantages given by the Canadian Pacific Railway.

(16) The present natives are not supposed to have occupied the country for more than 200-250 years². They were first known to Europeans in 1801, and in 1820 Dr. Moffatt, the well-known African missionary, lived among them. Later on the intrepid Livingstone explored Bechuanaland. The Bechuanas have always shown themselves to be natives of a superior character, and in 1801 the travellers, Truter and Somerville, reported that 'they may in every respect be considered to have passed the boundary which separates the savage from the

¹ 'Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute,' vol. xvii. p. 5.

² *Ibid.* p. 13.

civilised state of society.' The total area of the Crown Colony of British Bechuanaland is estimated to be about 45,000 square miles, and is of course only a portion of the territory known as Bechuanaland. Up to this point the land granted to Europeans is, approximately, 5,800 square miles¹. The country is adapted, generally speaking, to pastoral rather than agricultural purposes. Water is scarce, although it is discovered that it can be reached in a very dry region by means of Artesian wells. Sir Charles Warren, during the recent expedition, surprised the Boer farmers by the ease with which he found water for his large force. Under the native system the lands are all tribal. The chiefs have no power to grant land except with the consent of their clansmen. Grants of land, therefore, given absolutely to white men by chiefs, without reference to councillors or people, are illegal.

(17) The chieftainship is hereditary, but the rule of succession is not followed very strictly. Generally speaking, when there is a choice of successors in the ruling family, the strongest and ablest man is chosen. The chieftain's power is held in check by his Council in the 'Pitso' or public assembly. In cases of disputes and fines, and of quarrels between individual clansmen, the chief's 'word' is generally held to be law. But of course there is no definite code and no invariable procedure of justice among these savage clans. It is only very roughly speaking that the Bechuanas may be said to enjoy representative government. There is just enough self-government existing to warrant our respecting it and using it.

The whole surface of the country swarmed with game not many years ago, and parts of it were the favourite hunting-grounds of the famous African hunter, Gordon Cumming. The country itself occupies a commanding

¹ 'Argus Annual,' 1890, p. 197.

position in South Africa. Through it is now driven the railroad which may take Europeans to the watershed of the Zambesi and the valleys of the Interior. On the west the Kalahari Desert presents almost insuperable difficulties of transport; and on the east the Transvaal, especially towards the coast, is difficult for engineers. In the distant future the mouth of the Zambesi or Delagoa Bay, or perhaps the Pungwe mouth on the east, may become the Bechuanaland port, but at present the whole region is isolated.

(18) Gordonia is a district of British Bechuanaland, extending along the north bank of the Orange River from the borders of Griqualand West. It includes a settlement named Upington, the Orange River Islands, and the neighbourhood of the Great Falls of Aughrabies. The population is estimated at about 1,200. In 1882, during the Koranna war, this territory was left derelict, and was filled up by a people known as the *bastard farmers*, who lived on the south bank. The settlement has succeeded well, and is remarkable for its irrigation works, fertilising about 500 acres of land by means of diverting the water from the Orange River.

(19) There are as yet no large towns or centres in British Bechuanaland. At present they may best be described as residences or posts. Leaving Griqualand West, and crossing the northern border, the first place of importance is *Taungs*. It is situated on the Hartz River, and a native chief, Monkoroane, resides near here with a tribe of 10,000 followers, who are active and industrious, growing mealies and corn and carrying on a brisk trade with the Europeans. The district is extremely well adapted to cattle farming. The fatal horse-sickness sometimes invades the country. There is a large fort here, erected by Sir Charles Warren, and forming a station for the Bechuanaland Police. The

next town or station is *Vryburg*, the capital of the country, having a population of about 400 Europeans. The whole population of the district is about 1,000. The distance between Taungs and Vryburg is forty-four miles. North of Vryburg is *Setlagoli*, forty-eight miles distant, composed chiefly of a farming population, with a large native element. It is the seat of the Methuen settlement. Its fort, a station of the Bechuanaland Border Police, occupies a commanding position, and overlooks at the distance of nine miles a large location of Baralongs. Next to Setlagoli is *Mafeking*, about fifty miles distant. It is eight miles from the Transvaal border. Mafeking is the last town in British Bechuanaland. This country was known as *Rooi Grond*, and the territory of the chief Montsioa, where filibustering was carried on after the Boer war by Transvaal adventurers. It was the object of the Warren expedition to check these disorders and to establish peace. The results of this expedition were immediately successful, and the sequel is very satisfactory. The proclamation of British rule here has not only insured progress to the natives themselves, but it has secured the trade route to the interior. The country itself provides many openings, not only to the British farmer and rancher, but also to traders and manufacturers, who find the Baralongs and Bechuanas, like the Basutos, profitable purchasers of British goods. The wise political movement, that ended in the assumption of a Protectorate over Bechuanaland, was greatly due to the energy and common sense of the late Right Honourable W. E. Forster, a name never to be forgotten in South Africa.

(20) Passing northwards and eastwards from the borders of the Bechuanaland Protectorate, we approach the vast region which, for convenience sake, may be termed Zambesia, meaning the valley of the great Zam-

besi. In this work, however, we are more particularly concerned with South Zambesia. Roughly speaking, South Zambesia would include the greater part of Khama's country, the district known as Bamangwato, the Land of the Thousand Vleis, Matabililand, and Mashonaland. The first point of interest is the kraal of Chief Khama.

Beyond Mafeking and the Molopo River the trade route points north and north-east to *Kolobeng*, *Shoshong*, and the country of Khama, known as 'the wise and good,' by reason of his firm and intelligent rule. A great part of his territory lies within latitude 22° S., but his influence extends as far as the Zambesi Falls, past Bamangwato. Khama is called the chief of the Bamangwato. At Shoshong hunters and traders diverge westwards to Lake Ngami and the Kalahari Desert, and eastwards to Buluwaiyo and Mashonaland. At *Palatswie*, Khama has a great kraal, or native town, among whose population he keeps order and discipline, not in the rough barbaric way, but by reasonable firmness and strictness.

(21) The following is a brief description of Khama and his people, by Mr. F. C. Selous, the well-known African hunter and trader: 'The inhabitants of Khama's country are, first his own people, the Bamangwato, who, together with a large number of Makalakas refugees from the western border of Matabililand, all lived lately at Shoshong, the largest native town in South Africa. They have now removed to the Chapong hills, in the neighbourhood of Palatswie. This district around the Chapong hills is reported to be the best watered and most fertile spot of Khama's dominions. Besides these Bamangwato and Makalaka, there are a good many Makalaka living along the river Botletlie, where they tend large herds of cattle belonging to Khama and his people. And on the Mababi there are also some settle-

ments of the Masubias refugees from the Upper Zambezi during the tyrannical rule of Sipopo. Beyond these few scattered settlements, the whole of the vast expanse which I have marked in my map as Khama's dominion is only inhabited by a few scattered tribes of Bakalahari and Masarwas. Many of the Bakalahari in the north and west of Mangwato have, under the kind and just rule of Khama, attained to a certain degree of civilisation, and now form an interesting illustration of a people in a transition stage, from utter barbarism to a more advanced condition. A generation ago all the Bakalahari lived the life described by Livingstone. They wandered continually under a burning sun, over the heated sands of the Kalahari, without any fixed habitation and ever engaged in a terrible struggle for existence, living on berries and bulbs and roots, on snakes and toads and lizards, with an occasional glorious feast on a fat eland, giraffe, or zebra caught in a pitfall; sucking up water through reeds and spitting it into the ostrich eggshells, and altogether leading a life of bitter grinding hardship from the cradle to the grave. Before dismissing Khama and his country, I should like to add a few words to the very general tribute of praise that has been accorded him. To myself, personally, he has always been most kind and courteous, and I believe him to be a strictly upright and honourable man¹.

(22) Matabililand.—From Shoshong and Palatswie, the northern route crosses the twenty-second parallel of latitude, and points north-east to the ancient gold-fields of *Tati*, and to *Buluwayo*, the kraal of the well-known chief, Lobengula. Gold-mining operations have been carried on at Tati ever since 1868, when the London and Limpopo Mining Company, headed by Sir John Swinburne, com-

¹ See Address to the South African Philosophical Society, January, 1890.

menced operations. In 1872, between 1,500 and 2,000 ounces of gold were sent home. In this year Sir John Swinburne held a concession from Lobengula, in whose territories the mines are situated. The area covered by this concession extended from where the Shashi River rises to its junction with the Tati and Ramoqueban River, thence along the Ramoqueban River to where it rises, and thence along the watershed of these rivers¹. The following is a description of Matabililand by Mr. Maund: 'Compared with the country south of it, Matabililand is like Canaan after the wilderness. If it be not actually flowing with milk and honey, its numerous rivers are either flowing or have plenty of water in them. Corn and wood are plentiful; cattle abound; and, above all, it is very rich in gold, copper, iron, and other minerals. The principal part of the country occupied by the Matabili comprises the high lands, forming the watershed of numerous rivers, running to the Limpopo on the south and to the Zambesi on the north. The country is from 3,000 to 5,000 feet above sea level, and is an extensive high veldt. The actual country occupied by the Matabili is not more than 180 miles from north to south, by 150 from east to west. Within this area the Matabili kraals are concentrated like a military colony. Their sway extends, however, from Lake Ngami to the Sabi River, and from the Limpopo to the Zambesi. Matabililand presents a field for emigration far superior to anything offered in Bechuanaland. . . . Our influence must extend, as the paramount power in South Africa, as far as the natural frontier line of the Zambesi. Lobengula, as king of the Matabili, is the only chief in South Africa over whom British influence is not brought to bear. He is a chief with a standing army of 15,000 men. The industrious Makalakas and Mashonas, who formerly in-

¹ 'Argus Annual,' 1890, p. 506.

habited this country, were exterminated or driven out by Umzilikazi, the father of Lobengula. . . . A considerable trade in gold was formerly done with the Portuguese on the Zambesi. Alluvial gold is found in many of the rivers running down the northern slope of the watershed to the Zambesi. . . . The gold dust is carried down in quills. The natives grow excellent rice, and they trade in beautifully woven bags. The wild cotton, which grows over this part of Africa, they weave into blankets and dye with the indigo weed¹.

(23) 'The approaches to Matabililand are twofold, one route being from Mafeking through Tati and across the Matoppos range to Buluwayo, the capital; the other being along the southern boundary, keeping along the line of the Limpopo and entering Matabililand by way of Mashonaland. . . . Buluwayo, situated about 120 miles from Tati, may be taken as the specimen of a large kraal. In the centre is the king's waggon, and round it his wives' huts, all circular, built of mud bricks and roofed with reeds. Round the central cluster of huts is an open space 400 yards wide, and round this space are the habitations of the warriors, said to number 4,000, with their families. Beyond these, again, is the stockade, which is several miles in length. If a stranger approaches, he will probably find Lobengula with six of his indunas distributing justice. Cases are brought from all parts of the country, and are formally argued and judicially decided. The indunas act as counsel for the parties, and take technical points with an ingenuity that would do credit to an English Queen's Counsel, and discuss and debate the cases with great eagerness².'

Lobengula is a man of about fifty-six years of age, and of a dignified appearance and demeanour. He rules his

¹ 'Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute,' vol. xvii. p. 38.

² London Times Correspondent, August 5, 1890.

subjects with a strong hand. The Matabili themselves do no work, nor do they boast of any arts or industries. They do not even carve wood or shape their own assegais, and all the agricultural labour is done by slaves. Their country is fertile and produces abundance of Kaffir corn. The rainy season lasts three months, from November to January, and the storms come down with tropical violence. For some weeks before the rain the heat is intense.



CHAPTER XIV.

Mashonaland.

(1) THE country towards which public attention has been chiefly turned recently in South Africa, is Mashonaland, a tract of land situated mainly along the highlands of South Zambesia, and lying to the east and north-east of Matabililand. It occupies a position between the Limpopo on the south and the Zambesi on the north. It is approached from the south by a long gorge of seven miles, known as the Nagooswie mountain gorge, flanked on either side by rugged cliffs and krantzies rising up hundreds of feet. 'Here upon the elevated plateau, which is known as Mashonaland, stretches the fairest and perhaps the richest territory in all Africa. This plateau is of very great extent, and forms the watershed of the Zambesi, running north and north-east, and the Sabi and Limpopo running south and south-east. Almost the entire extent of the plateau is therefore magnificently

watered by a perfect net-work of streams, so that an enormous area of rich arable and grazing land could be used for agricultural purposes. The plateau is from 4,500 to 5,000 feet above the sea level. Throughout the year a cool refreshing wind blows from the south-east—owing to the elevation the nights are cool. The long winter may be called the perfection of a climate—invigorating, healthy, and bracing. It is a country where European children could grow up healthy and strong¹. The boundaries on the west and south-west are as yet somewhat indeterminate, being the limits of the kingdom of Lobengula, chief of Matabililand. The Tuli River is considered the boundary between the kingdoms of Lobengula and Khama, but the area between the Tuli and Umzingwan is a disputed tract. On the east and north the boundaries have been more carefully defined by a recent Convention with Portugal, the chief provisions of which are found in Article II. ‘To the south of the Zambesi the territories within the Portuguese sphere of influence are bounded by a line which, starting from a point opposite the mouth of the River Aroangwa or Loangwa (one of the northern affluents of the Zambesi), directly southward as far as the 16th parallel of south latitude, follows that parallel to its intersection with the 31st degree of longitude east of Greenwich, thence running eastward direct to the point where the River Mazoe is intersected by the 33rd degree of longitude east of Greenwich: it follows that degree southwards to its intersection by the 18° 30’ parallel of south latitude: thence it follows the upper part of the eastern slope of the Manica plateau southwards to the centre of the main channel of the Sabi, follows that channel to its confluence with the Lunte, whence it strikes direct to the north-eastern point of the frontier

¹ Appendix XXX. The climate of Mashonaland.

of the South African Republic, and follows the eastern frontier of the Republic and the frontier of Swazieland to the River Maputa. It is understood that in tracing the frontier along the slope of the plateau no territory west of longitude $32^{\circ} 30'$ east of Greenwich shall be comprised in the Portuguese sphere, and no territory east of longitude 33° east of Greenwich shall be comprised in the British sphere. The line shall, however, if necessary, be deflected so as to leave Mutassa in the British sphere, and Massi-Kessi in the Portuguese sphere¹.

(2) A glance at the map, as well as a study of the terms of the Anglo-Portuguese Convention, will show the general conditions under which the British South Africa Company will in the future conduct their operations. The thirty-third parallel of east longitude, adopted as the boundary line, gives the Company the greater part of the highlands of Manica, and includes probably the best auriferous areas. But Mashonaland continues still to be an inland state, and the Portuguese occupy the coast districts. This disadvantage has been obviated by that part of the Convention which throws open the waters of the Zambesi on the north to free navigation, and provides that there shall be no differential treatment of the subjects of the two Powers along the whole course and mouths of this river, and further stipulates that by Article XIV there shall be absolute freedom of passage between the British sphere of influence and Pungwe Bay on the east, for merchandise of every description. By the same Article the Portuguese Government have agreed to construct a railway between Pungwe and the British sphere. This railway will probably have its terminus either at Massi-Kesse or Mutassa, and follow either the course of the Bosi River or Pungwe River to the sea. Portugal also engages to maintain telegraphic service

¹ Appendix XXXI. The Anglo-Portuguese Convention.

between Mashonaland and the coast, treating the subjects of both countries equally. The sooner these public works are commenced and carried out by the Portuguese the better it will be for both countries. Whatever prosperity is attained in Mashonaland by means of British enterprise and capital, will react favourably upon the maritime province of Portugal, even if it only confers the benefit of three per cent. dues upon imported goods. The example of British pluck may have, moreover, a stimulating effect upon Portugal in many ways, and teach her to explore and utilise thoroughly her fine and ample domains. The assertion of British influence close by is a guarantee of industrial progress and of peaceful development. Instead of hugging their colonial possessions in selfish and unprofitable isolation, the Portuguese will now throw them open to a free and profitable intercourse with the whole world. They have engaged to permit and to facilitate transit for *all* persons and goods of every description over the waterways, not only of the Zambesi and Pungwe, but those of the Shiré, Busi, Limpopo, and the Sabi. By the terms of her Convention with Portugal, England has conferred substantial benefits on merchants and traders of all nationalities.

(3) With regard to the ancient history of Manica and Mashonaland it is necessary to make a few remarks, as so much has been said about it recently. The mouth of the Zambesi itself has been held by the Portuguese for 400 years, and was considered by them from the earliest times to be a great gold district—and the seat of an ancient civilisation. Duarte Barboza, the cousin of the great Magellan, thus describes the kingdom of Benamatapa or Monomotapa: ‘On entering within this country of Sofala, there is the kingdom of Benamatapa, which is very large and peopled by Gentiles, whom the Moors call Cafers. These are brown men, who go bare, but covered from the

waist downwards with coloured stuffs or skins of wild animals. . . . Leaving Sofala for the interior of the country, at fifteen days' journey from it there is a large town of Gentiles, which is called Zinbaoch; and it has houses of wood and of straw, in which the king of Benamatapa frequently dwells, and from there to the city of Benamatapa there are six days' journey.' There are some who have identified this city with the recently discovered ruins of Zimbabwe, in Mashonaland. From this city the old chronicler narrates that the merchants bring to Sofala the gold which they sell to the Moors for coloured stuffs and beads of Cambay. The kingdom of Benematapa was supposed to extend both southwards to the Cape of Good Hope, and northwards to Mozambique¹. In the first voyage of Vasco da Gama to the Indies the Portuguese stayed for a month at the mouth of a river, the Bons Sinaes, north of Sofala, to careen and repair. At the mouth of this river they 'set up a marble pillar, which had two escutcheons, one of the arms of Portugal, and another on the other side, of the sphere and letters engraved in the stone which said "Of the Lordship of Portugal, Kingdom of Christians²." Five days after this they arrived at Mozambique, which is subject to the king of Quiloa.

(4) The interior of the country, however, was little known, India and the East offering far greater attraction to the Portuguese. The right of discovery belongs entirely to them. In old maps of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries this kingdom of Monomotapa appears. In the Geography of Livius Sanutus, dated at Venice, 1588, it lies behind Caput Currentium or Cape Corrientes, a headland just below Inhambane Bay, and almost

¹ 'The Coasts of East Africa and Malabar,' by Duarte Barbosa, 1514, p. 7.

² 'Three Voyages of Vasco da Gama.' Hakluyt, p. 73.

exactly facing the Island of St. Lawrence or Madagascar. In a manuscript map of John Thornton in 1682, to be seen in the Bodleian Library, the kingdom of Monomotapa reaches as far as Delagoa Bay, apparently covering a greater part of the territory now included in the Transvaal Republic;—then came the kingdom of Suffalo or Sofala, then Mozambique, then Quiloa, then Melinde. Almost all the names on this manuscript map are Portuguese, proving that up to 1682, a period of more than 250 years since the first discovery of south-east Africa, neither Dutch, nor French, nor English, had added much to the geography of the country. In maps of 1670, however, the Dutch coloured South Africa as their own. They may be supposed to have done this for two reasons, the first being their actual occupation of the Cape in 1652, an occupation which, as we know, they considered to give them first claims to the whole of the Hinterland, and to the coasts and regions of Natal. The second reason might be that in consequence of their great successes over the Portuguese in the Eastern seas at the beginning of the seventeenth century, the Dutch rightly considered themselves the successors everywhere to the Portuguese, both on the west coasts of India and the east coasts of Africa. In 1622 Francisco da Gama sailing to the East as Viceroy, had to burn his own ship on the coast of Mozambique to save it from a Dutch squadron; and in 1639 a squadron of nine Dutch vessels entered the river of Goa and burned three galleons. The sieges of Mozambique and Malacca, and the interference of the Dutch in the affairs of Ceylon, were signs of the complete downfall of the Portuguese power in the East. At the end of the seventeenth century the Court of Lisbon directed their attention to Brazil and neglected India, but true to their traditions they kept up a succession of high-sounding Viceroys, although they sent, according

to information acquired by Abbé Raynal, at most two small ships every year to Goa and Diu for porcelain¹.

(5) In the better light now thrown upon the geography of the world, it might well be asked how countries so far apart as India and South Africa could ever have been considered together as parts of an Oriental Empire. To this it must be answered that officially they were treated as one government. The Dutch themselves governed the Cape and South Africa as part of their Eastern Empire for 150 years. Even under British occupation the Cape was at first associated very closely with India. So when Portuguese India fell, it seemed in the estimation of Europe, and especially of the Dutch, to drag Portuguese Eastern Africa with it also. The one conquest seemed to follow the other, and the titular claims of Portugal were simply wiped out by the Dutch map-makers. It was, however, mainly through its own intrinsic weakness and selfish methods that Portuguese rule came to an end in Eastern waters. Diego do Couto, a Portuguese, who wrote a book called the *Soldado Prático* in 1790, observed that those who crossed the River Lethe lost their memory, but that the Portuguese governors who doubled the Cape of Good Hope lost both fear of God and fear of the king.

(6) In the seventeenth century the Dutch would appear to have carried on a certain amount of South African exploration. Van Riebeeck, the first Dutch governor of the Cape, had studied the Portuguese books of travel and geography, Linschoten's celebrated work, and Father Martinus Martini's verbal description of the country, and thought he could fix the exact position of the kingdom of Monomotapa. 'From the sources of information at his command, Mr. Van Riebeeck laid down the city of Davagul, in which the Emperor of Monomotapa kept his

¹ Introduction to 'Three Voyages of Vasco da Gama.' Hakluyt.

treasures, as 828 English miles in a north-easterly direction from the Cape of Good Hope, and 322 miles westward from the Indian sea, that is, in the neighbourhood of the present town of Pretoria. It was built on the bank of the river Spirito Santo. The city of Cortado on Rio Infante was believed to be in the same direction, only much nearer than Davagul. The inhabitants on the route are stated to be the Cochoqua, the Chainouqua, and the Hancumqua. Next to these last were the Chobona, who were believed to be the civilised people of Monomotapa.¹ Such were the vague and shadowy notions of geography then prevailing in the standard maps of South Africa of the middle of the seventeenth century, that on such a map as that of Allard's (Amsterdam) there are two great rivers flowing eastwards across the interior of Africa, the Rio Infante, identified by some with the Fish River, on which were the towns of Vigiti Magna and of Camissa, in search of which the Dutch sent several expeditions up to the end of the seventeenth century; and the river Spirito Santo, arising from the same sources on the Zambesi, and having its origin in a great lake in the interior².

(7) The darkness, however, that has hung over this part of South Africa has long been dispelled, and far to the north, as well as along its lower reaches, the Zambesi is becoming well known. The Portuguese have chiefly confined their authority to the mouth of the river, the few ports on the river, and to the islands off the east coast. This great river has now been thrown open to the commerce of the world, and serves as a line of demarcation between tropical and sub-tropical Africa, and is accepted at present as a natural boundary. In course of time its waters may afford access to the Congo Free

¹ Theal's 'History of South Africa,' p. 132.

² See Carolus Allard's Map. Amstelodami, 1679.

State, and, by means of the Shiré, its northern affluent, an approach to the Lake Districts. The following is a description of the Zambesi trade given by a recent traveller, which shows to a certain extent the state of Portuguese commerce :—‘The town of Sena, which is the first place of importance that one comes to, is between 120 and 150 miles from the sea, and is situated on the south bank of the river. It is built very much as if it were originally laid out by the Dutch, as it so closely resembles some of their towns in the old Colony. Beyond Sena one comes to the Lupata Rapids. These, although they go by the name of Rapids, are not really so, being nothing more than a narrow channel, the water rushing at a furious pace between the great walls of rock that rise up on either side, and it is only by means of a good strong hawser that the passage through is successfully made. Once through, however, you find yourself in the Province of Tete, which is under quite a different governor from that of Quillimane. Tete is a little place containing about twenty-five or thirty houses, chiefly stores and depôts. The greater part of the trade is in gold and ivory, the gold being found on the northern bank of the Zambesi, and also from the Mazoe district. The practice is for the merchants to equip large parties of natives to go on the search for gold. Near Tete are large deposits of copper and vast coal-beds. In the future it may become the emporium to which all travellers of Central Africa may turn to dispose of their gold or ivory, or the storehouse whence to replenish their waggons or their boats¹.’

(8) The history of this part of the world may be said to have begun with the recent development of Mashonaland by the British South Africa Company.. Up to about 1840, according to the testimony of Mr.

¹ ‘Natal Mercury,’ December 9, 1890.

Selous¹, the whole of this country was very thickly populated by peaceful quiet people, having immense herds of cattle, sheep, and goats. Soon afterwards a Zulu Attila, named Umsiligas, father of Lobengula, swept through the country destroying everything, the inhabitants not being able to offer any resistance. His invading hosts conquered the people along the Zambesi Valley, and then went over the river to the Barotse, their furthest point being a country known as 'The Matabili Plains.' Here they wished to return, and one man, a Batanga, undertook to take them all across the river, which was more than a mile in breadth there. It was often very difficult to see the other side of the river, and people frequently thought that they could see it, but when they were crossing saw they had been deceived, and had mistaken an island for the bank. The Batanga landed all the Zulu army on this island in fives and sixes, promising to take them on afterwards. But when it came to the last boat-load he capsized them, and, jumping into the river, swam ashore. The whole Zulu army, being left on the island, were starved to death, as none of them could swim. Thus by craft perished this murderous and marauding army of Zulus, and for his deed the Batanga was esteemed a great chief. On the south a large tribe of Makalakas were exterminated in 1886 by order of Lobengula, the paramount chief. In this raid men, women, children, and even the dogs were all killed. The history of this country is, indeed, the history of a savage land where might is right, and where the marauding impis of the conquering Matabili have swept aside all peaceful progress and prosperity.

(9) Until very recent times few European travellers had explored Matabililand and Mashonaland. David

¹ See Address to the South African Philosophical Society, January, 1890.

Livingstone, Stanley, and other African explorers have occupied themselves chiefly in solving the more difficult and fascinating problems of the sources of the Nile and the features of the Equatorial Lake system far to the north. So this ancient country was left to its primaeval solitudes. Hunters, like Mr. Hartley, have penetrated Matabililand, and the late Thomas Baines visited this country twenty years ago, and discovered that valuable gold mines were to be found in a number of reefs distributed all over the country. In 1868-71 Karl Mauch, a German explorer, named the Kaiser Wilhelm Gold Fields, Mount Bismarck, Mount Moltke. He, or according to some¹, his companion, Renders, an American, first saw the ruins of Zimbaoe, Zimbabye, or Mazimbao, placing them in lat. $20^{\circ} 15' 34''$ and long. $31^{\circ} 37' 45''$, at an elevation of 4,200 feet above the level of the sea. These ruins are supposed by some to be the remains of the city and palace of the Queen of Sheba. More light, however, may shortly be thrown upon them by Mr. Theodore Bent, who has made a special journey thither with a view of comparing them with ruins elsewhere. They themselves have been thus described by a recent visitor: 'The ruins themselves lie at the base of a striking and precipitous granite "kopje" inhabited by one of the Mashona tribes under a chief called Moghabi. The first feature to be noticed on approaching the kopje is the existence of an outer wall about four feet high, running, apparently, right round the entire kopje, but, owing to the high grass and dense jungle-like undergrowth, it was found impossible to trace this wall more than a mile. Next came indications of a second or inner wall, which it was also impossible to trace for any distance for the same reasons. Then, amid a perfect labyrinth of remains of small circular buildings—a mighty

¹ See Stuart's 'Gold-fields of South Africa.'

maze, but not without some plan—south-west of the “kopje,” and 300 yards from the base, we find ourselves confronted with the startling and main feature of these remains—namely, a high wall of circular shape, from thirty to thirty-five feet high, forming a complete inclosure of an area eighty yards in diameter. This wall (about ten feet in thickness at the base, and tapering to about seven or eight feet at the top) is built of small granite blocks, about twice the size of an ordinary brick, beautifully hewn and dressed, laid in perfectly even courses, and put together without the use of a single atom of either mortar or cement. This strange inclosure is entered on its eastern side by what at first sight appears to be a mere gap in the wall, but which closer examination reveals to be what was once evidently a well-defined, narrow entrance, as shown clearly by rounded-off courses. Inside the building itself (which is most difficult to examine thoroughly, owing both to the dense undergrowth and presence of quantities of trees hundreds of years old, which conceal traces of, seemingly, a series of further circular or elliptical walls) and close to the entrance and outer wall stands a conical-shaped tower or turret, thirty-five feet in height and eighteen feet in diameter at the base, built of the same granite blocks, and consisting of solid masonry. Lastly, the remaining feature of this building is that on the south-east front of the wall, and twenty feet from its base, runs a double zigzag scroll, one third of the distance round, composed of the same sized granite blocks placed in diagonal position. On the kopje and hill-side itself, too, there are numerous traces of remains of a similar character, circular buildings wedged in among boulders of rocks, walled terraces at least nine in number; and, built on the very summit, an enormous mass of granite blocks, to be used apparently as a fort, and which is in

an almost perfect state of preservation. The view obtained from the summit of this kopje commands a panorama probably unrivalled in South African scenery.'

(10) The South Africa Company founds its claims in the first instance upon a concession granted twenty years ago to Mr. Thomas Baines, by the king of the Matabili. This concession was duly signed, sealed, and delivered, and enabled the concessionaire, acting on behalf of the South Africa Gold-fields Company, to seek for precious metals. This is the parent concession¹. There was also another concession made by the Matabili king in 1888, known as the Rudd concession, as well as others, all of which were consolidated under Imperial authority by Mr. Cecil Rhodes. The result is the charter given to the British South Africa Company², which resembles the North Borneo, the Royal Niger, and British East Africa Companies, all of them being powerful instruments of British rule. The British South Africa Company, however, may be said to enjoy, in an exceptional manner, the favour and countenance of influential Englishmen at home.

(11) The act of occupation began with the well-known expedition of 1890-91, and distinctly marks an epoch in South African history. A few years ago, after the disastrous Transvaal war, England's ministers seemed inclined to retire from South Africa. Then ensued the well-known Warren expedition, undertaken to Bechuanaland in order to restore law and order along the western boundaries of the Transvaal. This being done ably and effectually, British prestige was restored. Bechuanaland, also, over which the wise and enlightened chief Khama then ruled, seemed to be a convenient base for the further extension of British authority northwards. The regular

¹ 'Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute,' June, 1891.

² Appendix XXXII. Charter of the South African Company.

trade route took sportsmen and travellers northwards to the Tati Gold-fields, where British capitalists had already been at work, up to the kraal of Lobengula at Buluwayo, a hundred miles further on. Some officers of the Warren expedition took the opportunity of travelling up the country and seeing for themselves what the land promised in the way of sport and adventure. Of these, Mr. E. A. Maund did most to bring it to the notice of the public, both by descriptions in the Blue Books, and also by Lectures delivered before the Royal Geographical and other Societies. The country, which had been the favourite resort of a few hunters like Hartley and Selous, was destined to be the scene of busy operations of a great Company, and to furnish a bone of contention between England and Portugal.

(12) In July, 1890, an expedition of 700 men was collected on the banks of the river Tuli with the object of taking possession of the Mashonaland Plateau, 300 miles to the north. They were warned by the Boers that they would perish with thirst or be victims to the savage Matabili. It is a somewhat remarkable fact that the Boer Trekkers had never attempted to explore the country north of the Transvaal. In 1874-1880 there was a well-known exodus of them, in which great privations were endured. They travelled in the direction of Lake Ngami, explored the Okavango Valley, and ultimately crossed the Cunene River at a spot about seventy miles from its mouth in the vicinity of some great cataracts. This was in the so-called Portuguese Province of Mossamedes ; but here, on the western side of South Africa, as upon the eastern, there existed no real occupation or colonisation. Ultimately these emigrant Boers settled down at a place called Huilla, the party consisting of 37 families, numbering 270 souls, with 50 servants, who had accompanied them from the Transvaal, 61

waggon, 3,000 oxen, 120 horses 3,000 sheep and goats. This Trek is interesting for many reasons. It shows, first of all, the peculiar Boer method of trekking, which is slow, aimless, and desultory, the emigrants moving along for months, and even years, in primitive and patriarchal fashion. The Mashonaland Trek organised by the leading spirits of the South Africa Company was quick, sharp, and decisive, with a definite aim in view. The Boer Trek proves also that the Boers were comparatively ignorant of the geography of South Africa, for how could they have chosen the sandy and barren plains of the Kalahari desert and all the horrors of the great Thirst Land, when there lay to the north, much nearer to their homes, the plateaux that culminate in Northern Mashonaland? Possibly the Trekkers may have feared Lobengula, king of the Matabili, or Gungunhama, king of Gazaland. But any Boer Trek now contemplated on a large scale from the Transvaal, and arising from the action of the British South Africa Company, can only be conceived in the spirit of jealousy and envy. The Pioneer force of the Company have scarcely meant to pave the way for an organised Boer Trek, although they may welcome Boer farmers and emigrants, as they welcome all those who are anxious to develop the resources of Mashonaland.

(13) The progress of the Pioneer Force from stage to stage must be regarded as a chapter of South African History pregnant in its results, and throwing light upon the geographical and ethnical problems of the country. The Reverend Frank Surridge, late Chaplain to the Force, has described in his recent paper on Mashonaland, read before the Royal Colonial Institute, some of the chief features of the journey. After the Tuli was crossed, already described as a large 'sand' river about 400 yards in width, and stated to be the boundary between the

kingdoms of Khama and Lobengula, a thickly-wooded country extending for about 250 miles had to be penetrated. Here the real perils and dangers of the expedition might be said to have begun, the Bechuanaland wastes having been traversed in comparative safety. To avoid complications with the Matabili a route was selected which lay no less than 150 miles to the east of Buluwayo, the king's kraal. This precaution was wisely taken, and the chances of a conflict thus reduced to a minimum, native armies such as those met with in South Africa never being able to take the field long in any great force owing to the lack of commissariat. Travelling on from the Tuli nearly straight east, the Pioneer Force passed through a thickly-wooded country composed chiefly of Mopani trees and the beautiful acacia. 'The forest is very unlike that of Central Africa of which Mr. Stanley writes so much. There is but little tropical vegetation, and the trees for the most part are small and insignificant, and appear to be stunted in growth owing to the protracted droughts of eight or nine months in duration.' However, around the Umzingwani, a picturesque river, flowing from the Matoppos Hills southward to the Limpopo, some magnificent timber is seen. Along its banks the gigantic baobab grows, frequently reaching a girth of thirty feet round its base. The undergrowth of this particular part of the forest is chiefly grass of a very coarse nature, which, after the rains, grows to a height of eight feet, and often conceals both horse and rider from view. Between the Tuli and Umzingwani are few native kraals, owing chiefly to the fear inspired by the Matabili.

(14) Leaving the Umzingwani the whole character of the country undergoes a change, and the flat forest country is followed by huge rocky kopjies or isolated peaks rising up in every direction, some of them to the

height of several hundred feet. This tract has been described as looking like a sea of granite, the summit of the hills being often rounded off and oval in shape. Along this country the Banyai people live and cultivate their crops of corn, rice, and tobacco. But, owing to the constant inroads of the Matabili hordes, they live in fear and trembling, huddling together in out-of-the-way corners of the cliffs or *krantzies* like so many *dasies* or rock-rabbits. The Matabili Impis or regiments, when they go on their marauding forays, kill all the men and carry off cattle, children, and corn, returning in triumph to their own lands. The Pioneer Force found, therefore, a comparatively unoccupied country where bloodshed and terror were the law of the land. The Banyai looked at first in terror upon the expedition, imagining that its object was the same as that of the Matabili. It does not appear that the slave trader desolates this part of South Africa, although of course slavery is part of the creed of the savage Matabili. The Banyai would hardly seem to deserve their wretched lot. They are quiet and industrious folk, farming their lands with a certain amount of system, one piece remaining fallow whilst another brings forth its harvest. Under good government they will doubtless flourish themselves, and contribute to the prosperity of the country.

(15) Upon quitting the country of the Banyai and directing their course north-east, the Pioneer Force found a different country. The wild Kaffir orange and other native fruits grow in small quantities, the river is more tropical in appearance, and occasional palms are seen. The acacia groves rising high upon the hill-sides are particularly beautiful. At this stage of the expedition an alarm was caused by some hostile messages said to have been received from Lobengula, but nothing resulted from them. The Nuanetsi River was reached and

crossed in safety, although the difficulty of making a drift or ford was great. The country was abundantly watered, and presented in every way the greatest contrast to the Great Thirst land further west. In December and January, during the rainy season, the floods are excessive, and the first great work in opening up the country will be the construction of bridges. Along the Lunte is game of every description, and here is the favourite resort of the hippopotamus and crocodile, which are the sacred reserved food of the Matabili in case of a national famine. Within a few hundred yards of its banks may be seen one of those strange and mysterious ruins which are engaging the attention of archaeologists in South Africa.

(16) Passing on through a more open country the Pioneer Force rested by the banks of the Tokwe River. This river is not so beautiful as the Nuanetsi, and is more difficult to cross. A few miles ahead the vegetation becomes more tropical, and the River Tokwani is clothed with deep woods, which overhang its waters and shelter the graceful palms and deep beds of maiden-hair fern. From this point begins the ascent to the highlands of Mashonaland, and the most conspicuous feature is the Pass called 'The Providential Gorge,' about seven miles in length, and rising 2,000 feet on to the Mashonaland Plateau. At the head of this Pass is Fort Victoria, 3,700 feet, and close by are the Zimbabwe Ruins. From Fort Victoria is an open country well watered by rippling streams, and wooded here and there by small clusters of mopanis and acacias. Here was the picturesque village of Somoto, where the natives seemed to be intelligent and industrious, carrying on their occupations of carving, cotton-spinning, mat-making, forging implements, tilling the land, and brewing their *dtchuala* or beer. From this point the Pioneer Force made their

way almost due north to Fort Charter, 4,500 feet, in the latitude of Mutassa and Massi Kessi, and finally Fort Salisbury, 4,700 feet, about lat. 18° S., having covered a distance of about 500 miles from Fort Tuli, lat. 22° S., over a most difficult and almost unknown country.

(17) The occupation of Mashonaland is now an accomplished fact, and the first stages of the enterprise may be said to be over. Postal communication has been maintained with surprising regularity when the difficulties of the situation are borne in mind. The following table of distances will show the enormous tracts of country to be traversed. From Kimberley,—situated 640 miles from Table Bay and connected with it by rail,—to the highlands above the Macloutsi River is a distance of 650 miles. From this point to Mount Hampden is another stretch of 400 miles along the road that Mr. Selous intends to make. Mount Hampden, therefore, the objective of the expedition, is more than 1,000 miles from Kimberley, and more than 1,600 miles from Capetown. The expedition, setting out from Kimberley on April 19, 1890, crossed the Tuli River into the new country on July 18, and finally reached Fort Salisbury on September 12, 1890, a trek, counting delays, of five months. The expedition may be said to have firmly entrenched itself in Forts Tuli, Victoria, Charter, and Salisbury. It is clear, however, that within a very short time rapid communications will be opened up with the eastern coast, according to the terms of the Anglo-Portuguese Convention. The distance between Fort Charter and the mouth of the Pungwe is less than 300 miles. It is a significant fact and illustrative of the Portuguese methods that a letter used to take six months to be conveyed from the coast to Mashonaland. In fact there cannot be said to be a Portuguese postal service at all. In contrast with this it may be noted that the time taken by the British South

Africa Company's relays to convey letters over nearly 1,000 miles of country southwards, is often only three weeks.

(18) It is probable that we are about to witness a new development in South Africa of an extraordinary character. The chief credit must be assigned to Mr. Cecil Rhodes, the Premier of the Cape, who has brought to bear upon this new expansion of Greater Britain a most wonderful degree of patience and sagacity. He has succeeded in reconciling a number of conflicting interests in South Africa, and pointed out the true methods of consolidation. He was one of those who, in the dark days remembered so well by colonists in 1880-83, did not despair of England's greater mission in South Africa, and worked for recovery of her prestige. Another Englishman, who has contributed largely to the success of the Mashonaland expedition, is Mr. Selous. He, indeed, was the great path-finder of this remote region, and has exhibited all those qualities of pluck and endurance which have made Englishmen the greatest pioneers of the world.

(19) The first great obstacle in the way was Portuguese lethargy. Those who have studied Portuguese colonial life on the spot were naturally impatient that their travesty of rule and mockery of development should be tolerated in the progressive nineteenth century. Portuguese cartographers at home had dreamed of a Trans-African Empire from Mozambique to Mossamedes. It was a dream and nothing more, and when tested by hard facts this shadowy fabric of empire fell to pieces. Portuguese authority had never been a reality in Africa. The Pioneer Force found that in the ancient kingdom of Manica there was only one Portuguese official recently imported into Massi Kessi, and that neither the chief Mutassa nor Gungunhama, the powerful Gaza potentate,

and the paramount chief of the eastern districts, confessed to any Portuguese dominion. Nor could an appeal to history help Portugal greatly. It was to obtain possession of the mines of Manica that Francisco Barretto, with 1,000 men of noble birth, is said to have marched from the Zambesi in the sixteenth century, only to meet with crushing disasters. Nor have any subsequent attempts been crowned with success. On the coast, as at Ibo, Angoche, Chiloane, and Delogoia Bay, there are small garrisons of police chiefly officered by Goanese, but all these garrisons could scarcely muster fifty men for service in the interior. At Mozambique there are some 250 men, and at Quilimane fifty, the greater part of whom are unfit for active service. At Inhambane, north of Delogoia Bay, bodies of so-called 'Zulus' can be procured as hired mercenaries against the natives of the interior, such as Major Serpa Pinto collected against the Makololo; but in no case, and under no circumstances, has the rule of Portugal in South East Africa been in the least degree effective. By the recent Convention Portugal has reaped even more than she ever was entitled to, chiefly, perhaps, because her weakness was considered; and, if an era of prosperity awaits her, it will be through the protection of the British.

(20) In Mashonaland itself the prospects of agricultural and mineral wealth are great. There are fertile areas round the Umfuli and the Hanyani Rivers, the soil being rich, and water, the great want generally in South Africa, being abundant. The Company's surveyors have already mapped out well-watered farms of 3,000 acres in extent, and the title-deeds of the properties will be awarded after the military tenure system of two years' residence. The reports of the gold-fields are on the whole encouraging. The Hartley Hills may be the centre of a busy mining community, the reefs here at the junction of the Umfuli

and Simbo hills having been discovered by Baines in 1870. About 100 miles in a north-easterly direction from Hartley Hills are the Mazoe gold-fields, said to be large and promising, and alluvial gold may be traced in almost all the rivers of the Mashonaland plateau. The Company's mining laws are just and liberal. The size of claims are, for alluvial, 150 feet square, and for quartz reefs 150 feet by 400 feet. Every licensed prospector has the right to one alluvial claim and ten claims upon a reef in block. On flotation the Company receives half the vendors' scrip, whether the Company float the block themselves or the claim-holders obtain better terms from the outside public.

(21) The prospects, therefore, of what has been termed 'a south central nation rising from the darkness of heathendom, and stretching out its arms to a better life—a life of civilisation'—are good. Close to a rich mining centre lie rich agricultural and pastoral areas, all situated on high and well-watered plateaux. Native labourers, who are comparatively cheap, will probably flock thither and Mashonaland become, after Kimberley and Johannesburg, a third great civilising agency in South Africa, the extent of which in Equatorial Africa can hardly be over-estimated. In the wake of British occupation will follow law and order as a matter of course. Railways and bridges will be constructed, telegraphs will be laid, and quick communication be held with the outside world through an eastern port. The dark shadows are those which may come from conflict with Lobengula or Gungunhama and their armies. But the kraals of both these chiefs are far distant from the 'scene of operations in Mashonaland, and it is not probable that either of them will be the aggressor. Lobengula, indeed, is personally interested in the development of the mines, is in receipt of a subsidy, and has proved himself able to restrain his

followers. The English resident, Mr. Moffatt, has great influence with him, and to the various English travellers and sportsmen who have penetrated to the Matoppo mountains Lobengula has shown himself well disposed. The chief Gungunhama, who is the paramount chief of all Gazaland, of which Manica is a small portion, is certainly lord of a great territory which fringes the Indian Ocean for 600 miles, skirts the Zambesi for 300 miles, and extends westwards to the borders of Mashonaland. Gungunhama himself, the son of Umzila, is descended from one of the great Chaka's fighting generals, is master of an armed force of 30,000 men, and collects tribute from countless races. He is, if anything, more powerful than Lobengula. Over this chief the Portuguese have no power at all. The paltry coloured garrisons and Goanese on the coast excite the contempt of this savage king. But Gungunhama has learned to respect the British power, and it is certain that the envoys of Gungunhama, who have recently visited England, will carry back a vivid impression of England's strength.

(22) The task before England of reconciling all interests in this part of South Africa is of no ordinary character. The area of that native administration, which is the one supreme problem of our South African Empire, has been indefinitely widened. What England has succeeded in effecting in Basutoland, and especially in Bechuanaland, where, under British guidance and control, Khama rules as a wise and able chief, she may effect elsewhere. If nothing is made of the hosts of Lobengula and Gungunhama for the present, the influences of Christianity and civilisation may at any rate be brought to bear upon the persecuted and industrious Mashonas, and thus a new and successful chapter be added to the annals of British colonisation in South Africa. The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign

Parts has come forward and granted a sum of £7,000 for mission-work in Mashonaland. This mission has been carried on for some considerable time, before the South Africa Company had its birth, but with the additional security of life and property guaranteed by a powerful company, together with increased facilities of travel and communication, the efficacy of Mission Centres must be greatly enhanced, and missionaries, magistrates, and merchants will be enabled to go forward together, strengthened by the example of what has been already done in South Africa. Thus, in due course of time a new and savage region may be won and kept under the all-protecting folds of the British flag.

APPENDICES.

1. On the Distribution of Population in Rural and Urban Areas (p. 110).
2. Protestants and Roman Catholics at the Cape (p. 113).
3. Cultivated Areas in the Midland and other Provinces (p. 132).
4. The German Legion (p. 148).
5. The Native Franchise (p. 170).
6. The Gill College Trust (p. 188).
7. Holdings and Occupiers (p. 201).
8. Natives and their Lands (p. 210).
9. Mr. Hofmeyr's Scheme for Imperial Defence (p. 220).
10. New Diamond Fields (p. 224).
11. Imports of Cereals (p. 231).
12. Cape Wool (p. 234).
13. Ostrich Feathers (p. 235).
14. The Cape Revenue (p. 236).
15. The Debt of the Cape Colony (p. 239).
16. Recent Railway Extensions (p. 241).
17. The Submarine Cables (p. 242).
18. Trade and the Flag (p. 247).
19. Natal Shipping Statistics (p. 257).
20. Natal Census Summaries, 1891 (p. 258).
21. The Natal Constitution (p. 260).
22. Distribution of Population (p. 261).
23. Natal Trade, 1889-1890 (p. 263).
24. Present Military Establishment (p. 267).

25. Natal Industries (p. 268).
26. Transvaal Finance (p. 277).
27. Delagoa Bay (p. 279).
28. Boer Government (p. 284).
29. The Hottentots at the Cape (p. 287).
30. The Climate of Mashonaland (p. 308).
31. The Anglo-Portuguese Convention (p. 309).
32. The Charter of the B. S. A. Company (p. 319).



APPENDIX I.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF RACES IN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS, APRIL, 1891.

	<i>Urban Areas.</i>	<i>Rural Areas.</i>	<i>Total Population.</i>
Europeans	154,541	222,274	376,812
Aboriginal	49,763	797,779	847,542
All others coloured	114,473	186,912	301,385
Total	318,777	1,206,965	1,525,739

It will be noticed that nearly all the aboriginal (Bantû) population live in the Rural areas, but that nearly half the Europeans dwell in the Urban areas. Of the 376,812 Europeans 195,867 are males and 180,945 are females. Of the 847,542 aborigines 419,568 are males and 427,974 are females; of 301,385 'all other coloured persons,' 151,163 are males and 150,222 are females. See Preliminary Report of the Director of the Census, 1891, p. xiv.



APPENDIX II.

PROTESTANTS AND ROMAN CATHOLICS AT THE CAPE.

SINCE the seventeenth century bitter sectarian differences between Protestants and Roman Catholics in the Cape Colony have gradually disappeared. Yet the memory of religious persecutions lived long in Huguenot breasts, and even in the Veldt the 'Voertrekkers' would often recall what their forefathers had suffered. Episcopalianism, which may be said to have been first introduced into South Africa by Bishop Gray, was regarded somewhat suspiciously by the Dutch and French colonists; and the writer, when visiting at Dutch farm-houses, has occasionally heard the worthy and kind-hearted bishop dubbed a Pope or a Papist, a term carrying with it indefinable terrors redolent of the Inquisition. Bishop Gray founded the Diocesan or Bishops' College, as it is generally called, and there is a story that an up-country Dutch farmer, although wishing to send his son there to gain the best education possible, was deterred from doing so by one thing, viz. a portrait of William of Wykeham, hung up in the Dining Hall of the Institution by an old Wykehamist, which he regarded as a flagrant instance of the abhorred worship of images. However, the tendency of the times is towards toleration in the Cape Colony. In the Orange Free State the yearly government grants are as follows:—to the Dutch Reformed Church £600; to the English Episcopalians £250; to the Wesleyans £250; to the Lutherans £200; to the Scotch Presbyterians £100; to the Roman Catholics £50. However, a Test Act against the Roman Catholics exists in the Transvaal Constitution, according to the terms of which the membership of some Protestant Church is made the qualification of the First and Second Chamber. Moreover the qualification of a President is that he must be a member of a Protestant Church and not have been sentenced for any criminal offence. Left to itself Puritanism has seemed to harden and crystallise in the Veldt, and the very

presence of a subject and lower race has tended to strengthen in the bosoms of the Voertrekkers their notions of Predestinarianism and Election.

APPENDIX III.

CULTIVATED AREAS IN THE CAPE COLONY.

THE estimate of 250,000 acres of cultivation for the Midland Province is based upon the returns of the 1875 Census and is certainly very small. It is doubtful, however, whether the areas of cultivation both in this and other provinces have increased much since 1875. The Dutch farmer, who is the largest landowner in South Africa, is generally satisfied with a few cultivated patches near his homestead, called 'Lands,' growing just sufficient mealies, oats, hay and barley for his own use. The 'corn-Boer,' who is seen mostly in the Malmesbury, Koeberg, and neighbouring districts, is not a speculative agriculturist and would never run the slightest risk of glutting the market. It must be remembered, however, that the conditions of the Cape Colony are somewhat against a regular production of the 'staff of life.' Irrigation areas are few and far between, and districts like those round the mouth of the Berg River and Soldanha Bay rarely occur. The broad mimosa-covered tracts of the plains and karroos of the Midland Province are favourable for sheep, ostriches and Angora goats. A comparison of the harvest results at any time during the interval 1875-1890 do not lead us to suppose that the increase of arable land and of cultivated spots devoted to the best class of cereals has kept pace with the increase of wealth and population. Money has been made easily in South Africa, and the farmers who profit by gold, diamonds, ivory, skins, and wool can afford to pay for imported flour or margarine. According to Mr. Theal the cultivated areas in the Cape Colony amounted to about 900 square miles in 1875, or $\frac{1}{117}$ th of the whole surface.

APPENDIX IV.

THE GERMAN LEGION.

‘WHEN the Ama-Xosa Kaffirs,’ carried away by superstition, had destroyed their cattle and mealies in obedience to a famous witch-doctor or prophet, Mhlakaza, and thus committed a kind of national suicide by starving themselves, large tracts of land became depopulated. The Governor of the Cape resolved to fill them up and caused farms of about 1500 acres to be surveyed there. These were to be held on military tenure and serve as an advance-post of civilization. The German Legion, which had been levied by Great Britain for service in the Crimea, provided first-rate material after the conclusion of the Russian war. Many of their number consented to go, and under the command of British officers were located in British Kaffraria.

Another settlement of emigrants from Northern Germany, which must not be confused with this military occupation, was made in 1858-9. No fewer than 2081 were sent out under a contract between the Governor of the Colony and a merchant of Hamburg and landed at East London. They were bound to refund the passage money of themselves and their families within a certain time and to pay £1 per acre for the plots of land that were allotted them. The best possible results have followed upon this immigration, which may be compared in some respects with the fruitful 1820 immigration of British settlers to Algoa Bay.

APPENDIX V.

THE NATIVE FRANCHISE.

THE native Franchise is just now (1891) the *vexata quaestio* of Cape Colony politics. Mr. Hofmeyr, the leader of the Dutch party, has taken up the matter, and his proposal is that the

person who inhabits a house of £25 value, or has a salary of £25 with board and lodging or of £50 without board and lodging, shall retain his one vote as at present, but that a man who occupies a house worth £100 and receives a commensurate salary, with or without board and lodging, shall have a second vote, and if he receives more than this, a third vote. Further, that all who have passed a certain examination, such as the matriculation of the Cape University or something similar, shall also have, irrespective of any property qualification, a second vote. This measure involves a most important fundamental change in the constitution of the Cape. It gives increased power to land and property, and to the Boer landowners and their sons, and includes an education test. More than eleven years ago one of the first resolutions of the Afrikander Bond touched the question of the raising and alteration of the Franchise, the delegates of the Bond going so far as to fix it at £100 instead of the £25 qualification as at present. When the Transkei and Tembuland were annexed and the native population was increased by nearly 500,000 a stringent Registration Act was passed in order to define more accurately the qualification required by the Constitution Ordinance. This Registration Act is not, however, regarded as sufficient by some whose wish is to emphasise still more strongly the value of property and education. The following tables, compiled by the Director of the Census (1891), will show the proportionate representation of (1) White, (2) Black, and (3) All other coloured people in the various provinces.

A reference to the second table proves that in the almost purely native regions of Tembuland and Griqualand East the Kaffir representation is at present most insignificant.

A. SUMMARY.—REPRESENTATION OF ELECTORAL PROVINCES IN 1891.

ELECTORAL PROVINCE.	NUMBER OF REPRESENTATIVES.		NUMBER OF PERSONS TO A REPRESENTATIVE.							
			EUROPEAN OR WHITE.		ABORIGINAL NATIVES.		ALL OTHER COLOURED.		TOTAL PERSONS.	
	Legislative Council.	House of Assembly.	Legislative Council.	House of Assembly.	Legislative Council.	House of Assembly.	Legislative Council.	House of Assembly.	Legislative Council.	House of Assembly.
I. Western	3	10	20,318	6,095	613	184	22,796	6,839	43,727	13,11
II. North-Western . .	3	10	13,686	4,106	438	131	20,314	6,094	34,438	10,33
III. South-Western . .	3	10	19,142	5,743	848	254	18,103	5,431	38,093	11,428
IV. Midland	3	8	14,173	5,315	4,576	1,716	13,487	5,058	32,236	12,089
V. South-Eastern . .	3	10	15,908	4,772	22,276	6,683	8,455	2,536	46,639	13,992
VI. North-Eastern . .	3	10	14,298	4,289	18,167	5,430	7,212	2,104	39,677	11,903
VII. Eastern	3	12	18,065	4,516	223,405	55,851	4,087	1,022	245,557	61,389
VIII. Griqualand West .	1	6	29,469	4,911	36,436	6,073	17,210	2,868	83,115	13,852
• The Colony, 1891	22	76	17,128	4,958	38,525	11,152	13,699	3,966	69,352	20,076
The Colony, 1875	21	68	11,275	3,482	13,697	4,230	9,361	2,891	34,333	10,603

It should be observed that the Electoral Roll in April, 1891, contained the names of 73,816 Registered Voters, being 4.8 per cent. of the total population. The above table is useful not only as pointing out the scale of representation in 1875 and 1891, but also in giving us a clue to Kafir representation. We must look for this under the heading Eastern Electoral Province, which includes the Transkeian Territories. We shall see there that the Kafirs are very slightly represented. A single member of the Legislative Council represents no less than 223,405 Kafirs and a single member of the House of Assembly represents 55,851. Considering that Europeans are represented for the Council and Assembly at 17,128 and 4,958, respectively for a single member, the fear of Kafir representation seems exaggerated. From another point of view it might be suggested that the above Census Summaries of 1891 form a basis for a new Redistribution Bill.

B. REPRESENTATION OF ELECTORAL DIVISIONS [HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY] IN 1891.

ELECTORAL DIVISIONS.	Number of Represent- atives House of Assembly.	NUMBER OF PERSONS TO A REPRESENTATIVE, 1891.			
		European or White.	Aboriginal Natives.	All other Coloured Persons.	TOTAL.
I.—WESTERN ELECTORAL PROVINCE.					
(1) Cape Town	4	6,853	185	6,463	13,501
(2) Cape Division	2	10,496	295	10,763	21,554
(3) Stellenbosch	2	2,176	115	4,058	6,349
(4) Paarl	2	4,099	138	6,447	10,684
II.—NORTH-WESTERN ELECTORAL PROVINCE.					
(1) Worcester	2	5,656	194	8,004	13,934
(2) Malmesbury	2	5,022	95	6,508	11,625
(3) Piquetburg	2	3,254	28	2,511	5,793
(4) Namaqualand	2	1,830	131	6,443	8,404
(5) Clanwilliam	2	4,766	207	6 926	11,899
III.—SOUTH-WESTERN ELECTORAL PROVINCE.					
(1) Swellendam	2	5,657	57	5,112	10,826
(2) Caledon	2	4,302	27	4,638	8,967
(3) Riversdale	2	4,936	85	4,014	9,035
(4) Oudtshoorn	2	6,170	372	6,089	12,631
(5) George	2	7,648	731	7,301	15,680
IV.—MIDLAND ELECTORAL PROVINCE.					
(1) Graaf-Reinet	2	5,537	3,285	5,167	13,989
(2) Richmond	2	4,146	1,372	4,119	9,637
(3) Beaufort West	2	4,402	603	4,414	9,419
(4) Victoria	2	7,175	1,604	6,530	15,309
V.—SOUTH-EASTERN ELECTORAL PROVINCE.					
(1) Port Elizabeth	2	6,922	2,289	3,449	12,660
(2) Uitenhage	2	9,999	11,021	7,320	28,340
(3) Graham's Town	2	3,135	1,306	777	5,218
(4) Albany	2	2,461	7,736	846	11,043
(5) Victoria East	2	1,345	11,063	289	12,697
VI.—NORTH-EASTERN ELECTORAL PROVINCE.					
(1) Somerset East	2	4,565	7,718	3,062	15,345
(2) Fort Beaufort	2	2,395	6,038	1,892	11,225
(3) Cradock	2	4,644	5,014	1,379	11,037
(4) Colesberg	2	5,174	3,565	3,383	12,123
(5) Albert	2	4,668	4,017	1,100	9,785
VII.—EASTERN ELECTORAL PROVINCE.					
(1) King William's Town	2	6,032	42,891	684	49,607
(2) East London	2	3,986	9,009	207	13,020
(3) Queen's Town	2	4,748	20,291	1,111	26,152
(4) Aliwal North	2	2,600	14,457	945	18,002
(5) Wodehouse	2	4,573	13,148	366	18,087
(6) Tembuland	1	6,198	326,003	1,762	333,963
(7) East Griqualand	1	4,114	144,621	3,874	152,609
VIII.—ELECTORAL PROVINCE OF GRIQUALAND WEST.					
(1) Kimberley	4	5,030	4,613	2,399	12,042
(2) Barkly	2	4,673	8,991	3,808	17,472

APPENDIX VI.

THE GILL COLLEGE.

As one of the Lecturers at the Gill College (1876-7) the writer had some opportunity of forming a judgment on the character and appropriation of the bequest. The worthy founder, William Gill, M.D., son of the late Reverend George Gill, of Market Harborough, in England, was surgeon in the District of Somerset for thirty-four years, and died on the 14th day of September, 1863. The amount of property he bequeathed was very considerable, consisting of funded property and landed estates. Together with this the philanthropic surgeon bequeathed a library, and also an annual sum of £30 sterling as a library bequest. The Gill College was known for its herbarium, to which the well-known botanist, Professor MacOwan, devoted so much of his time and energies. The bequest was a munificent endowment and a somewhat romantic anticipation of the better times in store for the Colony. In its general character and teaching the Gill College was supposed to follow the lines of the Glasgow University, and by a clause of the will the trustees 'shall provide, under such regulations as may seem to them expedient, for the gratuitous admission, when desirable, of poor but deserving students.' To a traveller in 1876 the place seemed rather out of the way for a 'Temple of the Muses,' and from the steps of the College a spot was often pointed out to the writer by the residents in the direction of the Fish River, where, a few years previously, a white man was gored to death by a buffalo. Since 1876 Somerset East and the Gill College have been brought into touch with the rest of the Colony by the extension of railways. In its general character the munificent Gill Bequest reminds one of the Codrington Bequest in Barbados.

APPENDIX VII.

HOLDINGS AND OCCUPIERS.

THE number of Holdings according to the Census of 1891 is not yet come in, but the following statistics of occupied buildings and dwellings may throw some light upon the nature of the present occupation in—

- (a) The Cape Colony (as constituted in 1875),
- (b) The Province of Griqualand West (annexed 1880),
- (c) The Transkeian Territories,

as represented in the Preliminary Report of the Director of the Census (1891). In the Cape Colony, as constituted in 1875, there were 49,408 occupied, and 5,756 unoccupied, urban dwellings, and 111,932 occupied, and 29,664 unoccupied, rural dwellings. In the Province of Griqualand West there were 7,726 occupied, and 1,074 unoccupied, urban dwellings, and 7,418 occupied, and 549 unoccupied, rural dwellings. In the Transkeian Territories there were 720 occupied, and 127 unoccupied, urban dwellings, and 99,910 occupied, and 47,487 unoccupied, rural dwellings, proving of course the nature of the hut population of the Kaffirs, which is almost entirely rural. A hut-tax causes Kaffirs to build larger huts, and to crowd together more closely. A Rural Holding in all parts of South Africa is generally combined with land and grazing, or communal rights. Closer statistics would show the vast extent of the South African farms, especially in the Cape Colony as constituted in 1875.



APPENDIX VIII.

NATIVES AND THEIR LANDS.

IN the first instance Europeans coming to North and South America, to the Cape, to New Zealand and Australia, have been invaders of the rights of others. The law of the strongest has prevailed, and Red Indians, Maoris, Tasmanians, have all suc-

cumbed. In South Africa the technical point has become more a question of argument because the aborigines have refused to be exterminated, and thrive wonderfully under the Pax Britannica. The Dutch East India Company in 1600-1700 endeavoured to put themselves in the right by parchment, and the original documents signed (1) by Schacher, the so-called Prince of the Hottentots and the Company, and (2) between two leading men of the Chainouquas and the Company, by which the districts round Table Bay and Soldanha Bay were ceded to them, have been alluded to as the title-deeds of their trading-post. In recent times the Voertrekkers laid claim to Natalia by virtue of a concession given to Reteif by Dingaan, the brother and successor of the bloodthirsty Zulu Chaka. But the transactions of the Voertrekkers, together with their appeal to Europe, were repudiated by the King of Holland, and the Voertrekkers were proved to be outside any state system in Europe, and, therefore, unable to make contracts in South Africa. 'Nemo exuere patria potest' was the answer to nomad Boers, who refused to acknowledge any 'patria' in the old Colony, or to submit in reality to the formal transference of the Cape of Good Hope to the English by the articles of capitulation in 1806.

If there is a difficulty, therefore, in making valid the compacts between a formally constituted and sovereign power as England on one hand and natives on the other, there are considerably more difficulties as between loosely constructed nomad communities and savage tribes. England could have made the whole situation clearer by absolutely refusing to endorse at any time any contract or treaty made in South Africa as interfering with her sovereign rights. This she has refused to do, and the first step was the abandonment of the Orange River Sovereignty.

Native rights as between chiefs and people are still of absorbing interest. Such a nation as the Basutos under their hereditary chieftains and the Bechuanas under Khama occupy a peculiar position. They have never lost their lands by the verdict of war, as the Zulus may be said to have done, and are acquiring rapidly a new political status. Formerly the chief's word was law. 'L'état c'est moi' was truly the old Zulu motto,

and it was acted up to most thoroughly by the chiefs for the time being. It is still so in Lobengula's and Gungunhama's domains. But the power of the Pitso is increasing and the voice of the people is being heard. No Basutoland chieftain, such as Letsie or Lerothodi, and not even Khama himself in Bechuanaland, even if he wished it, could alienate land without some consensus of opinion amongst the inferior chiefs themselves. After the defeat of Cetywayo, and when the thirteen kinglets were appointed, the eighth condition ran thus: 'I will not sell or in any way alienate or permit or countenance any sale or alienation of any part of the land in my territory.' This clause was better observed in the breach than in the observance, and the worst of it was England herself was to blame. In Pondoland, Umquikela and his heirs and successors, as well as Nquliso, have been dealt with as semi-independent chiefs, with power to sell or alienate to Great Britain under exceptional circumstances. The former received £200 per annum for the cession of the St. John's River Territory, and a lump sum of £1,000 down for Xesibeland. The right of natives to their land and to the mineral wealth of their lands is certainly a very puzzling question, and needs clearer definition every day. South Africa has too long been the happy hunting-ground of mock republics with travesties of rights and of adventurous concessionaires, searching for minerals and trading upon the weaknesses of incapable chiefs. Great Britain, never having followed a consistent policy in South Africa, has made this question, as well as others, very difficult to deal with.



APPENDIX IX.

MR. HOFMEYR'S IMPERIAL DEFENCE FUND.

THE following is Mr. Hofmeyr's scheme as given by himself in the proceedings of the Colonial Conference, 1887:—'The scheme which I wish to lay before the Conference is one which would promote a closer fiscal union between the various parts of the Empire, which would produce revenue for imperial

purposes, and which, at the same time, would leave the various fiscal tariffs of the different parts of the Empire, of the Colonies as well as England, untouched. I will give some figures to show how this plan might work in practice. I find that the total imports into the United Kingdom from foreign countries in 1885 amounted to £286,000,000. The total foreign imports into the Colonies for 1885 would amount to £66,000,000. The two together would give £352,000,000, representing the imports of foreign produce into the whole of the Empire. Now, supposing that we were to levy an average rate of two per cent. all round (the tariff might be arranged so that one class of goods should pay more than another), that £352,000,000 would give a revenue of not less than £7,000,000. That is a revenue which would pay for a very considerable part of the British fleet. It would relieve the Colonies from the payment of subsidies, and at the same time that it would be paid by the Colonies it would be paid by Great Britain too, of course. I do not know whether Great Britain would feel it or not, but the Colonies would not feel it, and it would establish a feeling on their part that whilst they were paying for the defence of the Empire, they were at the same time enjoying in British markets and in inter-colonial markets certain advantages which foreigners did not enjoy. That would establish a connecting link between the Colonies mutually as well as between the Colonies and the Empire also, such as is not at present in existence, and which might further develop by-and-by into a most powerful bond of union. (Blue Book on Colonial Conference, 1887. Vol. i. p. 465.)

With regard to this proposal it may be observed that the foreign import and export trade of the Cape Colony amounted in 1890 to about £1,100,000. (See Appendix XVIII. The Trade and the Flag.) The two per cent. differential duty, therefore, would give £22,000 as the Cape's share of the Imperial Defence Fund. In 1889-90 a vote of £146,706 was given by the Cape Parliament for the purposes of defence, and in 1891-2 their vote was £147,092. If Mr. Hofmeyr's plan was ever accepted it would certainly be a favourable one for the Cape revenue.



APPENDIX X.

NEW DIAMOND MINES.

DIAMONDS have been discovered at Wesselton, also on a farm at Gansolei, near Bloemhof.



APPENDIX XI.

IMPORTS OF GRAIN AND FLOUR.

IN 1890-1 the Cape Colony paid £211,571 for imported wheat, as against £24,045 for the previous year, and for imported flour £17,794, as against £5,835. The following table shows the importation of bread-stuffs and cereals from 1883 to 1890.

	<i>Wheat.</i>	<i>Flour.</i>	<i>Oats.</i>	<i>Barley.</i>
1883	£234,316 . .	£215,611 . .	— . .	—
1884	171,254 . .	139,656 . .	— . .	—
1885	179,241 . .	66,430 . .	£6,023 . .	£49,125
1886	79,431 . .	3,389 . .	123 . .	5,124
1887	72,581 . .	1,193 . .	258 . .	982
1888	26,907 . .	9,802 . .	71 . .	54
1889	24,045 . .	5,835 . .	697 . .	1,666
1890	211,571 . .	20,199 . .	1,631 . .	4,280

It will be gathered from these figures how great are the fluctuations in the grain trade, and how dependent the Cape is, occasionally, upon other countries for her supply. In the Colony itself the prices vary enormously. The food question is undoubtedly of great and growing importance, as wheat is constantly running short. Last year (1891) the wheat crop both in Cape Colony and the Free State only amounted to 800,000 bags, and 1,000,000 bags would only allow 134 lb. a head. The United Kingdom requires 360 lb. per head. The Colony is subject occasionally to droughts and locusts, and rust

often makes its appearance in the wheat. At present the Cape has the unenviable distinction of 'eating the dearest loaf in the world,' according to the report of the Capetown Chamber of Commerce (1891). The Port Elizabeth Chamber of Commerce laments, also, the fact that more attention is not paid to agriculture. The miner's spade is the 'Aaron's rod' that devours all others, and the capital that arises from mining goes to Europe and enriches absentee capitalists. This is partly the reason why agriculture languishes, but we are scarcely prepared to see how little it has progressed since 1875. The figures for the chief cereals of that year are as follows, being taken from Mr. Theal's Compendium, p. 19. These are compared with the harvest results of 1890.

HARVEST RETURNS.

	1875.	1890.
Wheat	1,688,000	1,938,058
Oats	918,000	929,716
Barley	448,000	510,565
Rye	214,000	406,259
Beans and Peas . .	61,000	173,386

Considering the augmented size of the Colony and the numerical increase of the colonists and aborigines—viz., from 720,984 in 1875 to 1,525,739 in 1891—the state of the agricultural industry as it appears from the figures given above for 1890 and appearing on p. 320 of the Statistical Register for 1890 does not appear encouraging. It should be mentioned, however, that the crops of 1888 and 1889 were considerably larger than those of 1890.

Dried fruit in 1875 amounted to 2,673,000 lbs., in 1889 to 1,655,925 lbs., in 1890 to 1,362,425 lbs.,—a distinct falling off. The maize and millet crops require a separate notice, as an examination of the returns of this cereal shows that half of it is produced in the more purely native districts, and that the cultivated areas here are more numerous than in any other part of the Cape Colony. It constitutes the chief part of a Kaffir's diet, and is his bread-stuff. For the whole Colony the maize crop amounted in 1890 to 3,107,571 bushels, of which Griqualand East produced 318,488 bushels, Tembuland 398,380 bushels,

the Transkei 331,100 bushels. The important district of Kimberley draws its wheat supplies from the Free State, and in case of a failure here large importations from other parts of the Colony and from abroad have to be made. This year, 1891-2, harvest prospects are very bad. Railway freights are heavy also, the charge on flour made from colonial grown grain being $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ per ton per mile, while that made from imported grain is $3d.$ per ton per mile, or just double, a differential railway rate that suits the pockets of the wheat-growers and not the general consumer. Some of the Malmesbury farmers are hoping this year to get 30s. per muid of three bushels. The Cape Colony cannot draw upon Natal, as this colony is unsuited to the growth of wheat owing to its liability to rust and mildew in the harvesting time. A small quantity of wheat is grown in the county of Umvoti, but its production is practically confined to the Weenen and Klip River Valleys. Natal trusts to imported wheat and flour, and cannot help her neighbour.

APPENDIX XII.

CAPE WOOL.

THE following notes on Cape wool are taken from the report of the Capetown Chamber of Commerce for 1890-91. The year 1890 opened with a heavy drop in value, the average decline, roughly estimated, being from 15 to 25 per cent. The McKinley Tariff is said to have seriously affected wool, and the strike in Australia retarded shipments. The average price per bale for the last four years is £10 3s. for 1887; £9 7s. for 1888; £10 2s. 3d. for 1889; £10 for 1890. The greatest shipments of wool were from Port Elizabeth, which is now attracting the Free State trade along the railway, and East London. Out of £2,194,772 worth of wool exported in 1890, no less than £1,112,995 worth came through Port Elizabeth, and £840,915 worth through East London. Only £210,819 worth was shipped at Capetown. Recently there has been an increasing direct

wool export trade from South Africa to Germany, with the exception of last year: viz. 68,000 bales in 1887; 89,000 in 1888; 93,000 in 1889; 78,000 in 1890. The Cape clip was about one-sixth of the Australian clip in 1890. The decrease of Cape wool in 1890 compared with the amount in 1889 was 2982 bales.

APPENDIX XIII.

OSTRICH FEATHERS.

IN 1889 a severe drought caused the death of a large number of ostriches, and checked the supply of feathers. This industry depends on the fashions of ladies' hats and dresses, there being no price for wing feathers as long as small hats and bonnets are worn. There was a remarkable advance in prices during 1890, the increase exceeding fifty per cent. The value of feathers sold in the Capetown market was £107,210 in 1889, and £181,186 in 1890.

APPENDIX XIV.

CAPE REVENUE FOR 1890-1.

January	£422,045	August	£339,000
February	366,419	September	355,725
March	427,113	October	330,528
April	430,223	November	321,372
May	363,193	December	319,767
June	371,986		
July	344,850	Total	<u>£4,392,221</u>

The probable Revenue for 1891-2 is calculated to be £4,388,462. Subjoined is a detailed account of Revenue and Expenditure for 1889-90. It will be seen that the interest on the public

debt is still the highest item of Expenditure; also, that the Railway Expenditure has considerably increased. The receipts, however, are close upon £2,000,000, and with the prospect of extensions northwards and eastwards Cape railways may be regarded as an improving property. The following figures are taken from the Report (1891) of the Committee of the Port Elizabeth Chamber of Commerce, pp. 113-114:—

DETAILS OF REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE FOR 1889-90.

<i>Revenue.</i>		<i>Expenditure.</i>			
	£	£	s.	d.	
Customs	1,369,357	Legislative	26,208	10	7
Land Sales	57,212	Civil Establishments . .	128,624	2	7
Land Revenue	181,898	Medical (Hospitals, &c.)	95,983	9	0
Rent	1,940	Science and Education .	122,758	16	5
Transfer Dues	110,449	Public Worship	7,948	9	0
Auction Dues	17,012	Judicial	106,032	13	3
Succession Dues	12,858	Police and Gaols	215,808	12	10
Taxes, House Duty	4,197	Convicts	53,665	18	10
Stamps	134,088	Crown Lands (Harbours,			
Stamped Licenses	115,710	Forests, &c.)	162,940	4	7
Bank notes duty	13,847	Railways (Working and			
Postage	159,524	Maintenance)	1,018,064	17	7
Excise Duty	695	Telegraphs (Construction			
Fines, forfeitures	13,966	and Maintenance) . . .	105,598	3	6
Fees of Office	5,355	Post Office and Mails . .	172,239	10	3
Sales of Government property	24,100	Buildings, Roads, and			
Reimbursements	72,537	Bridges	160,671	14	1
Mines	43,113	Native affairs	139,896	7	10
Miscellaneous Receipts . . .	35,615	Defence	142,773	13	11
Interest and Premiums . . .	20,165	Immigration	530	9	0
Railway Receipts	1,950,762	Pensions	47,883	12	11
Telegraph Receipts	85,652	Refund of Revenue . . .	34,438	5	4
Total	<u>£4,430,052</u>	Miscellaneous	73,678	3	8
		Public Debt	1,062,779	14	0
		Total	<u>£3,878,525</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>2</u>

ANALYSIS OF THE EXISTING DEBT ON THE 31ST DECEMBER, 1889.

Description of Debt.	Rate per cent.	General Government.	Harbour Boards.	Total.
Perpetual Annuities	4½	£ s. d. 492,307 11 0	£ s. d.	£ s. d. 492,307 11 0
" "	5	529,068 18 5	220,237 3 7	749,306 2 0
" "		1,021,376 9 5	220,237 3 7	1,241,613 13 0
Subject to a Sinking Fund	4	3,275,050 0 0	3,275,050 0 0
" " Redeemable	4½	2,030,100 0 0	86,700 0 0	2,116,800 0 0
" " Redeemable 1893-1923	5	739,036 0 0	58,764 0 0	797,800 0 0
" "		6,044,186 0 0	145,464 0 0	6,189,650 0 0
Expiring on fixed dates:—				
Redeemable Oct. 15, 1890	6	33,700 0 0	33,700 0 0
" Jan. 1, 1891	6	71,000 0 0	71,000 0 0
" Apr. 15, 1891	6	71,100 0 0	71,100 0 0
" Oct. 15, 1892	6	16,100 0 0	16,100 0 0
" Oct. 15, 1894	6	8,700 0 0	8,700 0 0
" Dec. 31, 1899	4½	7,800 0 0	7,800 0 0
" Oct. 15, 1900	6	94,400 0 0	50 000 0 0	144,400 0 0
" Dec. 31, 1900	6	18,100 0 0	18,100 0 0
" Dec. 31, 1900	5	122,300 0 0	122,300 0 0
" Dec. 1, 1923	4	3,517,546 0 0	274,349 0 0	3,791,895 0 0
" Oct. 15, 1916-1936	4	9,394,366 6 4	354,263 1 10	9,748,629 8 2
" " " "	248,937 0 2	248,937 0 2
" May 1, 1891
" " 15, 1891	3½	400,000 0 0	"	400,000 0 0
" June 1, 1891
" July 1, 1929-1949	355,608 14 5	17,967 15 7	373,576 10 0
" " " "		14,052,221 0 9	1,004,016 17 7	15,056,237 18 4
Debentures drawn but not paid . .	4½	3,000 0 0	3,000 0 0
" " " "		21,120,783 10 2	1,360,718 1 2	22,490,501 11 4

STATEMENT SHOWING HOW THE LOANS HAVE BEEN EXPENDED.

Work of Service.	Debentures or Stock issued.		Capital as affected by Conversion.		PRESENT STATE OF DEBT.							
					Existing Debt.				Interest for One Year.			
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
I.—Reproductive works:												
(a) Railways	14,092,553	0 0	14,711,780	13 1	13,607,890	13 1	555,595	10 11				
(b) Bridges	408,200	0 0	430,047	15 4	388,047	15 4	15,802	0 0				
(c) Telegraphs	190,723	0 0	109,481	18 3	188,581	18 3	8,240	7 9				
(d) Irrigation Works . . .	34,000	0 0	36,791	16 3	36,791	16 3	1,601	7 6				
(e) Harbours. — East												
London Harbour	534,928	0 0	568,068	3 11	542,368	3 11	22,818	8 8				
Kowloon Harbour . .	306,900	0 0	323,276	12 3	297,876	12 3	13,037	4 7				
(f) Loans. — Local works	230,000	0 0	250,105	8 9	250,105	8 9	10,790	0 5				
Irrigation	85,000	0 0	90,584	13 9	90,584	13 9	4,052	15 8				
(g) Groat Constantia . . .	6,901	18 8	6,901	18 8	6,901	18 8	345	2 0				
II.—Works which are not reproductive	5,946,191	10 9	6,233,744	9 11	5,708,694	9 11	240,297	10 3				
Total	21,835,397	9 5	22,840,783	10 2	21,117,783	10 2	872,580	7 9				

The Cape debt up to December 31, 1891, is £24,832,767.

APPENDIX XVI.

RECENT RAILWAY EXTENSION.

THE following is an extract from the 1891 Report of the Port Elizabeth Chamber of Commerce:—‘Your Committee had advocated two lines: (1) The junction of the north-east and border systems by a railway from Middelburg Road to Molteno; and (2) of the midland and western systems by a line from Aberdeen Road to Nelspoort. The Molteno-Middelburg was sanctioned and is now being carried forward, and a portion of the line will be open by the middle of 1891, and the whole of it by the end of 1891. This line completes the much-needed connection between the eastern and other railway systems of the Colony, and will likewise be of great importance to the country generally in the distribution of coal from the Stormberg.’ The railway from Colesberg to Bloemfontein was opened on the 17th December, 1890, and was a most important event. The Government, moreover, have come to an agreement with the Orange Free State to continue the trunk line from Bloemfontein to the Vaal River, linking with the Transvaal system, *in prospectu*, and through communication will thus be made between the old Colony and the two Dutch Republics, a matter of the deepest significance. The railway policy in the Cape Colony is directed to northward extensions, and towards bringing Johannesburg and the gold districts of the Transvaal into direct communication with Table Bay. The Delagoa Bay Railway, linking the Portuguese port with Pretoria, hangs fire, and, even when completed, will find formidable rivals in the Cape extensions, and the Natal Trunk line which has been thrust forward to the very farthest boundaries of Natal. It will be remembered that Sir Gordon Sprigg’s programme, on which he was defeated, was to borrow largely for local and lateral extensions in the Cape Colony—a policy which seemed, however, to the colonists to be too expensive for the present. It cannot be doubted, however, that for the purposes of distribution of produce and the general development of agricultural and pastoral occupations a

number of small local railways would be highly beneficial to the Cape Colony. As there are no canals or rivers the colonists are dependent upon railways. It may be added that agreements have just recently (Dec. 1891) been concluded between the Cape Commissioner of Crown Lands on the one hand, and the Netherlands Company on the other, under the sanction and guarantee of the Transvaal Government for the speedy completion of the Pretoria and Vaal River Railway to meet the Cape extension. The Government of the Cape is advancing £400,000 for the purpose, and will secure running powers over the new line. It cannot be long, therefore, before a railway passenger will take his ticket from Capetown to Pretoria.

APPENDIX XVII.

THE SUBMARINE CABLES.

WHEN the Zulu war broke out the nearest telegraph office from the Cape was St. Vincent or Madeira, the message being carried thither by steamer; but in 1879 a submarine cable was laid along the east coast of Africa by the Eastern Telegraph Company, the shore end being landed at Durban on July 5. The Imperial Government guaranteed £35,000, Cape Colony £15,000, Natal £5,000, for a term of twenty years. The section of cable between Durban and Delagoa Bay, a distance of 350 miles, is of five different sizes. At Durban there is one shore end, two at Delagoa Bay, two at Mozambique, 900 miles higher up the coast, two at Zanzibar, 560 miles further, and one at Aden. Between Zanzibar and Aden there is one complete section nearly 2,000 miles in length. When Port Beira is connected by wire with Fort Salisbury in Mashonaland there will be another branch of the Eastern Submarine Cable.

A new submarine cable along the west coast of Africa, touching at Port Nolloth and terminating at Capetown, was opened on June 13, 1890. It was closed for repairs from June 29 to August 4, but has worked successfully since then. The

eastern system is occasionally subject to breakages. Capetown, therefore, has two submarine cables at her disposal, both on the east and west. Some years ago the idea was mooted of constructing an overland cable from Gondokoro in Egypt to Delagoa Bay.

APPENDIX XVIII.

TRADE AND THE FLAG.

It is interesting to note from a Table of Imports and Exports for 1888, 1889, 1890, how large a share of the South African trade falls to the Mother Country, although there is no differential duty in her favour:—

IMPORTS.

	1888.	1889.	1890.
United Kingdom . .	£4,730,791	£6,599,248	£6,944,022
British Possessions . .	410,948	441,848	630,480
Foreign Countries . .	536,591	901,410	896,048
	<u>£5,678,330</u>	<u>£7,942,306</u>	<u>£8,470,550</u>

EXPORTS.

	1888.	1889.	1890.
United Kingdom . .	£8,409,006	£9,150,647	£9,692,656
British Possessions . .	109,443	66,348	64,318
Foreign Countries . .	358,208	183,960	212,191
	<u>£8,876,657</u>	<u>£9,400,955</u>	<u>£9,969,165</u>

There has been, also, a considerable increase lately in shipping, the tonnage outwards being 3,771,345 in 1889, and 4,010,905 in 1890, and the tonnage inwards 3,796,885 in 1889, and 4,009,231 in 1890. These are the figures in the Report of the Committee of the Capetown Chamber of Commerce for the year ending December 31, 1890.

APPENDIX XIX.

NATAL SHIPPING STATISTICS.

DURBAN is the only sea-port of Natal, and a large portion of the import and export trade of the Transvaal, as well as that of the Orange Free State, passes through it. Although the Cape Colony and Natal are coterminous for 150 miles, communication between them is kept up almost entirely by sea. The distance from Capetown to Durban is 855 miles, from England to Durban about 7,000 miles, and the voyage from England takes twenty-four to twenty-eight days. The main shipping Companies are the Union Steamship Company, the Castle Mail Packets, and the 'Clan' Line steamers. The tonnage of vessels coming to Durban has largely increased (see *Argus Annual*, 1891).

In 1887 the Tonnage Inwards was	235,485 ;	Outwards	231,296
In 1888	" " "	364,820 ;	" 362,237
In 1889	" " "	513,360 ;	" 499,748

The tonnage at the four principal Cape Colony ports for 1889 was as follows:—

Port Elizabeth .	Tonnage Inwards	1,075,433	Outwards	1,047,223
Capetown . . .	" "	1,275,083	"	1,269,228
East London . .	" "	931,872	"	914,114
Mossel Bay . . .	" "	394,217	"	394,574

The value of the imports and exports at the above ports was for the same year:—

	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.
		(Produce of South Africa.)
Port Elizabeth	£3,958,883	£1,970,096
Capetown	2,625,600	1,407,166
East London	1,129,751	942,948
Mossel Bay	136,660	58,337

The value of Natal imports and exports increased very largely during the four years ending 1889, as appears from the state-

ments in the 1891 Report of the Capetown Chamber of Commerce:—

	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.
1886	£1,331,115	£960,029
1887	2,211,920	1,056,959
1888	2,890,468	1,417,871
1889	4,527,015	1,656,318

It may be noted that the Transvaal imports for 1890 amounted to £4,163,713. Of this £1,085,000 was brought via Capetown, £2,610,000 via Natal, and £468,713 via Delagoa Bay. It cannot, therefore, be a matter of surprise that the Cape Colony is so anxious to connect her railway system with that of the Transvaal. During the same year the Orange Free State imported £1,084,350 worth of goods. Of this £800,000 went via Capetown, and £284,350 via Natal.

APPENDIX XX.

POPULATION STATISTICS, 1891.

The latest return gives the population of Natal as follows:—

Whites	46,788
Indians	41,142
Natives	455,983
Total	<u>543,913</u>

APPENDIX XXI.

THE NATAL CONSTITUTION.

THE Imperial authorities have been unable to confirm the Natal Self-government Bill, and the reasons for their refusal are now (December 1891) being forwarded to Natal.

APPENDIX XXII.

DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION.

THE recent census (1891) does not show any great displacement of population. Natal is a country where European immigration is very slow. New arrivals are not satisfied with openings in Natal as small agriculturists but flock northwards to the mining centres. The following remarks on the census return have been made by the *Natal Mercury* (December, 1891). 'Roughly speaking we may distribute the native population as follows: Coastlands, 162,000; Midlands, 153,000; Uplands, 140,000.' It is also reported that only seven per cent. of the European population are engaged in farming. The whole are classified as follows: Professional, 3,556; Commercial, 3,058; Agricultural, 3,325; Industrial (or wage earning), 6,628; and non-productive, 29,465. In a further classification 10,482 are set down as school-children, 8,938 are returned as being concerned in domestic duties, and 6,727 are described as 'unemployed.'



APPENDIX XXIII.

NATAL TRADE, 1889-1890.

THE 1889 figures show the same result. In this year out of £4,527,015 worth of imports no less than £3,642,594 worth came from the United Kingdom; £309,036 worth from the British Colonies; £575,325 worth from foreign countries. Out of £1,656,318 worth of exports Natal sent £1,483,208 worth to the United Kingdom, £78,453 worth to the British Colonies, and £94,657 worth to foreign countries. From these figures it is clear that in the case of Natal, and, it might be added, in the case of the Cape Colony also, Mr. Hofmeyr's differential duty would bring in a very small sum at the ports for the purposes of an Imperial Defence Fund. With regard to the export of gold it would appear from the latest statistics that this precious metal is now being shipped at Capetown rather than at Durban,

as the following figures show (see Capetown Chamber of Commerce Report, 1891).

	<i>From Natal.</i>	<i>From Capetown.</i>
1885	£52,223	£17,321
1886	113,166	23,914
1887	143,551	92,936
1888	392,502	517,176
1889	584,933	860,271
1890	358,520	1,498,280

The export from Natal for three months ending March, 1891, was £33,631; from the Cape £582,661. The great movement was most visible in 1888. As £4,000,000 worth of diamonds are shipped through Capetown, this port would seem to send home annually nearly £6,000,000 worth of gold and diamonds. These exports it must be remembered do not benefit the colonists generally so much as the small band of monopolists 'who hold the diamond mines and gold mines in their hand. This produce is not like wool, mohair or ostrich feathers, the shipping ports of which are Port Elizabeth and East London. It has been pointed out, elsewhere, how the bulky export trade of the Transvaal finds its way through Natal.

It may be pointed out that South Africa is rapidly rising as a gold-producing country.

	1889.	1890.
United States	£6,503,400	not given
Queensland	2,754,382	£2,332,760
Victoria	2,152,692	2,280,000
South Africa	1,445,428	1,803,559
New Zealand	785,490	— — —
New South Wales	451,792	362,000
India	292,100	405,800
Tasmania	128,486	103,000
South Australia	70,000	97,500
Western Australia	58,871	46,000

The value of the South African output for 1891 is £2,792,472, a marvellous advance upon that of the previous year.

The great trade route of Natal is from Durban along the main line that bisects the colony almost evenly as far as Charlestown. The revenue derived chiefly from this railway has largely increased. It was £257,000 in 1887: £347,000 in 1888:

£535,000 in 1889. After deducting expenditure there was a net revenue of £84,000 in 1887, of nearly £150,000 in 1888, and of £235,000 in 1889. The gross revenue in 1890 rose to £600,000 (*Natal Handbook*, p. 10). Natal has few lateral railway extensions of any great length, but the objects of her main line are plain: (1) to attract Transvaal trade, (2) to connect the Dundee coal fields with Durban. The trade route linking with the Orange Free State is also very useful, but traffic is done there by cart and waggon.

APPENDIX XXIV.

THE MILITARY ESTABLISHMENT AT NATAL.

THE Imperial troops at Natal (1891-92) comprise the 11th Hussars; Royal Scots, 1st Battalion; 11 Battery, 4th Brigade, Royal Artillery, with detachments of Royal Engineers, Army Service Corps, Ordnance Store Corps and Medical Staff. The Imperial Expenditure authorised for the year ending 31 March, 1890, was £153,000.

APPENDIX XXV.

NATAL INDUSTRIES.

SUGAR is the principal product of the coast regions, and it is almost limited to the counties of Victoria and Alexandra. In 1889 the acreage under crop was over 15,000 acres, the average produce per acre one ton, the average price per ton £19 13s. od. The estates are worked by Indian coolies, who cost about 1s. *per diem*. The Cape Colony takes more of Mauritian and less of Natal sugar than formerly, the figures being 1200 tons from Natal and 13,161 from Mauritius (1890). There were 97,000 gallons of rum manufactured in 1889 as against 122,357 in 1888, the average price being 8s. a gallon. Coffee is not cultivated to the same extent as formerly, but a little is still grown in the

county of Alexandra, Umzimkulu division, and the Lower Tugela division. Tea-planting is almost entirely confined to the Lower Tugela division, and, when the writer was there a few years ago, had hardly begun as an industry. The whole acreage under cultivation was 788 acres in 1889. A small capitalist might do something here with the aid of Indian coolies. Arrowroot is a decaying industry. Maize, the great grain food of Natal and the 'breadstuff' of the Kaffirs, thrives everywhere, but the crop in 1889, owing to a scarcity, rose to 8s. a bushel. The coast-lands are favourable to all kinds of tropical and semi-tropical produce, and two crops of vegetables can be grown in the year. Land can be bought ready cleared from private owners from £1 to £3 per acre, and near Durban 20 acres are sufficient for a small capitalist to start upon. For irrigation spots facilities are given by the Irrigation Laws of 1887 and 1890. On the alluvial flats, oat-hay, or forage, a somewhat expensive food for travellers to buy for their horses, can be grown with success.

In the upland districts, sheep-farming, which requires a capital of about £300-500 to start with, is the great occupation. In 1889 there were 608,000 wool-bearing sheep. Here and there the Black Wattle is grown, the bark of which serves for tanning purposes and is exported to England. Small capitalists can probably do well in Natal who invest with care and judgment. Indians and Kaffirs solve the labour question in a way it cannot be solved in Australia, New Zealand, Canada, or elsewhere. Horses and mules thrive well on the hills, and there is a continual demand for them owing to the terrible scourge of the horse sickness which is very fatal in almost all low-lying parts of South Africa. Angora goats thrive on the uplands, but do not do so well as in the eastern districts of the Cape Colony. Perhaps Natal is best suited for small and mixed agricultural industries, when the farmer has 'many strings to his bow.'

APPENDIX XXVI.

TRANSVAAL FINANCE.

THE Transvaal Republicans have certainly possessed a revenue upon which to exercise their skill at finance. The gold output of Witwatersrand was valued at £808,188 in 1888; at £1,296,148 in 1889; and at £1,233,545 for the nine months from January to September in 1890. For 1889 the output from Barberton, Sydenburg, Klerksdorp and other districts amounted to 60,643 oz., valued at about 70s. per oz. The revenue from the Gold Field for the Transvaal Republic was £460,466 in 1888; £882,195 in 1889; and £381,137 in 1890 (six months). It is interesting to observe how the revenue is raised. In 1889 the whole revenue was £1,577,445, of which £372,534 came from customs dues; £201,358 from Transfer dues; £198,166 from Prospectors' Licenses; £137,786 from Diggers' licenses; £111,381 from Post Office receipts; £120,350 from leases; £34,944 from Stand licenses; £61,724 from licenses; £95,940 from stamps. It will easily be conjectured that the Transvaal burghers have made the Uitlanders and the mining community pay somewhat severely for the privilege of mining in their republic. According to the Transvaal Customs Tariff an import duty of 5 p. c. *ad valorem* is placed on all imported merchandise excepting those articles most useful to the burghers. All machinery, without any exception, is liable to duty. There was, however, a decrease of Revenue in 1890, amounting to £425,606. The Expenditure showed an increase of £465,332 for the same year. The item of fixed salaries rose from £219,641 to £321,520; Public Works from £300,671 to £507,579; and 'Various Services' were £171,088 in 1889 and £133,701 in 1890. Upon the subject of Transvaal finance a writer in the *London Times* (November, 1891) observes, 'While the sale of concessions has deprived the Transvaal Government of almost all increasing sources of revenue, expenses are mounting up in the usual ratio to an increased population, and contracts for railways

have been entered into which must be met in the course of the next six months. The attempt to raise money in London has failed, and President Krüger's chances of obtaining it now lie between Holland and the Cape. The principal sufferers in event of final failure would be the Dutch contractors, and it is presumable that financial influence will on that account be exerted on their behalf in Europe. On the other hand the Cape Government could not look with indifference on the serious misfortune of a neighbour or a friend. The best course will probably be to appeal frankly to the Government of the Cape.' The deficiency of Transvaal revenue has been the opportunity of the Cape, and by recent negotiations (December, 1891) the Cape Government has advanced £400,000 to the Transvaal for the completion of the Victoria and Vaal River Railway, obtaining in return running powers over the new line.

APPENDIX XXVII.

DELAGOA BAY.

IN December, 1883, the Portuguese Government granted a concession for 90 years for the construction of a line from Delagoa Bay to Komati Port. No effect was given to this concession until March, 1887, when a company with an authorised share capital of £500,000 was formed in London by Colonel McMurdo, an American capitalist. The line was commenced in June, 1887, and under the able management of Sir Thomas Tancred was ready to be opened in November, 1888. Disputes, however, between Colonel McMurdo and the Transvaal Government on the question of tariff, interfered with the enterprise. The Transvaal Government were acting on behalf of certain Netherland concessionaires, and Colonel McMurdo offered to solve the difficulty by undertaking the whole line from Delagoa Bay to Pretoria, an offer which the Transvaal rejected, much to their detriment as some might think. President Krüger's face, however, was set against Colonel McMurdo—so much so that he declared that if he offered to build the railway

free of cost he would not accept it. The length of the line is, 52 miles from Delagoa Bay to Komati Port, 75 miles thence to Nels Spruit, and 200 miles from Nels Spruit to Pretoria, or 327 miles altogether. Colonel McMurdo died in 1889 and his rights came to his widow.

A graver difficulty, however, arose when on June 24, 1888, the Portuguese Government seized the line, which had been completed nearly to the Transvaal border by Anglo-American capital and skill, on the ground that it was not finished by this date—a date fixed by themselves, at a peculiarly awkward time of the year, i. e., when the rainy season was only just over. Lord Salisbury disapproved of this act as illegal, and demanded compensation for the loss caused by the seizure. The United States also joined England in protesting. The question is now narrowed to the amount of compensation to be paid by Portugal, and the matter has been referred to three Swiss jurists.

Throughout Portugal has acted in a manner entirely prejudicial to her best interests.



APPENDIX XXVIII.

BOER GOVERNMENT.

A TYPICAL Boer Republic in South Africa is an ultra-Conservative Church-and-State instrument of government, and is moreover a Puritan and Protestant oligarchy in the midst of heathendom. From American republicanism as from French republicanism it is as wide as the poles asunder. 'Liberty, equality, fraternity,' is an unknown formula in the Boer republics. Generally these states have been content with one legislative chamber, but, quite recently, the Transvaal Republic, as a sop to the mining community, has adopted a second chamber, a concession in name rather than in reality, as the old board of Burgher members has only been split into two chambers of twenty-one each, with no redistribution Bill,

no alteration of religious tests, or property qualification; only the residential qualification is lowered from fifteen to five years. A Boer Government is most successful in such a state as the Orange Free State, where natives are few and where, under the limited conditions of the territory, the personal supervision of such a kindly and wise ruler as President Brand can be felt in all departments. A study, moreover, of Boer Government, in South Africa, as evidenced in Mr. Theal's history of them, will show that there have been many internal and domestic differences in them from time to time. Their form and spirit have too often been grossly travestied in such mock communities as Goshen, Stellaland, the new Republic, Upingtonia, and others.

APPENDIX XXIX.

THE HOTTENTOTS AT THE CAPE.

ACCORDING to the 1891 census there were 50,388 Hottentots in the Cape Colony. In the Cape census the term 'Aboriginal natives' is applicable only to the various branches of the Bantû race, although Hottentots were the first aborigines met with in the country. It is therefore simply for the sake of clearness that they are classed with such alien and imported races as Malays, Chinese, Indians, and others under the general heading of 'All the coloured persons.'

APPENDIX. XXX.

THE CLIMATE OF MASHONALAND.

ON the other hand it should be carefully noted that in the low-lying valleys during the wet season the climate of Mashonaland is said to be unhealthy. The wet season commences about the end of December, and continues to the middle of March. The rain gauge at Fort Salisbury registered fifty-two

inches during last season. Many prospectors are at present (1891) avoiding the wet season. (See *Cape Times*, weekly edition, December 2, 1891.) With a better food supply, increased facilities of transport and more comfortable house accommodation, the evils of a tropical and sub-tropical climate can be greatly diminished. Cultivation also, and tree-planting, notably of the Eucalyptus, add to the healthiness of a tropical country. Too much care cannot be bestowed upon diet, prophylactic medicines, and plain rules of living, in regard to which so many travellers, new to a country, are hopelessly reckless. At the beginning of this century the Ceylon climate was terribly fatal to our troops in the Cinghalese wars. The island is very fairly healthy now. The climate of Mashonaland is very deadly to horses. The 'perdzikte' or horse sickness, that strange malady, the destructiveness of which the writer has witnessed himself in South Africa, is a great obstacle to travellers. The tsetse, or fly, is the enemy of oxen. This insect disappears, however, with the extermination of game.

It should be added that Bishop Knight-Bruce, speaking at Capetown (December, 1891), after an extensive personal experience, reports favourably on the Mashonaland climate. 'We should be intensely thankful,' he observes, 'for the health which our workers have had from the very commencement of our mission in Mashonaland, now nearly four years ago. Certainly one man did die in trying to meet me as I was walking up to the Zambesi, and it was with great regret that we heard of the death of Dr. Glanville after he had ceased to have any connection with us, and was about to take up other work in the country. The only other death that we have to chronicle is that of our clergyman at Fort Tuli, Mr. Truster.' Speaking of Umtali, the future base of missionary enterprise, the Bishop affirmed himself a thorough believer in its healthiness. (*Cape Times*, weekly edition, December 9, 1891). The prospects of mission work are extremely promising, six centres being already established and agreements made with every considerable chief to receive the Church of England as their teaching power.

APPENDIX XXXI.

THE future of Mashonaland may be said to hang upon the speedy completion of the east coast railway. By the terms of the treaty the Portuguese were allowed six months to complete the survey. After that, they were to decide whether they would make the railway or not. The greatest possible pressure has been brought upon the Portuguese to proceed quickly, and if they fail to complete the line by a certain time it is probable, according to Mr. Cecil Rhodes, that the British Government would allow the chartered company to do it. The east coast route is already open for passengers, and the journey has been accomplished by pioneers in eighteen days. Fort Salisbury will very shortly be brought into telegraphic communication with the rest of the world, probably by the end of January, 1892. By the terms of the Anglo-Portuguese Convention, Portugal by Article XI, can levy three per cent. duties on imports and exports, but these duties must not be of a differential character. The following are the terms of the Anglo-Portuguese Convention:—

Article I.

Great Britain agrees to recognise as within the dominion of Portugal in East Africa the territories bounded—

1. To the north by a line which follows the course of the River Rovuma from its mouth, up to the confluence of the River M'Sinje, and thence westerly along the parallel of latitude of the confluence of these rivers to the shore of Lake Nyassa.

2. To the west by a line which, starting from the above-mentioned frontier on Lake Nyassa, follows the eastern shore of the lake southwards as far as the parallel of latitude 13 deg. 30 min. south; thence it runs in a south-easterly direction to the eastern shore of Lake Chiuta, which it follows. Thence it runs in a direct line to the eastern shore of Lake Chilwa, or Shirwa, which it follows to its south-easternmost point; thence in a direct line to the easternmost affluent of the River Ruo,

and thence follows that affluent, and subsequently the centre of the channel of the Ruo to its confluence with the River Shiré.

From the confluence of the Ruo and Shiré the boundary will follow the centre of the channel of the latter river to a point just below Chiwanga. Thence it runs due westward until it reaches the watershed between the Zambesi and the Shiré, and follows the watershed between those rivers, and afterwards between the former river and Lake Nyassa until it reaches parallel 14 deg. of south latitude. From thence it runs in a south-westerly direction to the point where south latitude 15 deg. meets the River Aroangwa, or Loangwa, and follows the mid-channel of that river to its junction with the Zambesi.

Article II.

To the south of the Zambesi the territories within the Portuguese sphere of influence are bounded by a line which, starting from a point opposite the mouth of the River Aroangwa or Loangwa, runs directly southwards as far as the 16th parallel of south latitude, follows that parallel to its intersection with the 31st degree of longitude east of Greenwich, thence running eastward direct to the point where the River Mazoe is intersected by the 33rd degree of longitude east of Greenwich; it follows that degree southwards to its intersection by the 18 deg. 33 min. parallel of south latitude; thence it follows the upper part of the eastern slope of the Manica plateau southwards to the centre of the main channel of the Sabi, follows that channel to its confluence with the Lunte, whence it strikes direct to the north-eastern point of the frontier of the South African Republic, and follows the eastern frontier of the Republic, and the frontier of Swaziland to the River Maputa.

It is understood that in tracing the frontier along the slope of the plateau no territory west of longitude 32 deg. 30 min. east of Greenwich shall be comprised in the Portuguese sphere, and no territory east of longitude 33 deg. east of Greenwich shall be comprised in the British sphere. The line shall however, if necessary, be deflected so as to leave Mutassa in the British sphere and Massi Kessi in the Portuguese sphere.

Article III.

Great Britain engages not to make any objection to the extension of the sphere of influence of Portugal, south of Delagoa Bay, as far as a line following the parallel of the confluence of the River Pongola with the River Maputa to the sea coast.

Article IV.

It is agreed that the western line of division separating the British from the Portuguese sphere of influence in Central Africa shall follow the centre of the channel of the Upper Zambesi, starting from the Katima Rapids up to the point where it reaches the territory of the Barotse kingdom. That territory shall remain within the British sphere; its limits to the westward, which will constitute the boundary between the British and Portuguese spheres of influence, being decided by a joint Anglo-Portuguese Commission, which shall have power, in case of difference of opinion, to appoint an umpire.

It is understood on both sides that nothing in this article shall affect the existing rights of any other State. Subject to this reservation, Great Britain will not oppose the extension of Portuguese administration outside of the limits of the Barotse country.

Article V.

Portugal agrees to recognise as within the sphere of influence of Great Britain on the north of the Zambesi the territories extending from the line to be settled by the joint Commission mentioned in the preceding article to Lake Nyassa, including the islands in that lake south of parallel 11 deg. 30 min. south latitude, and to the territories reserved to Portugal by the line described in Article I.

Article VI.

Portugal agrees to recognise, as within the sphere of influence of Great Britain to the south of the Zambesi, the territories bounded on the east and north-east by the line described in Article II.

Article VII.

All the lines of demarcation traced in Articles I. to VI. shall be subject to rectification by agreement between the two Powers, in accordance with local requirements.

The two Powers agree that in the event of one of them proposing to part with any of the territories to the south of the Zambesi assigned by these articles to their respective spheres of influence, the other shall be recognised as possessing a preferential right to the territories in question, or any portion of them, upon terms similar to those proposed.

Article VIII.

The two Powers engage that neither will interfere with any sphere of influence assigned to the other by Articles I. to VI. One Power will not, in the sphere of the other, make acquisitions, conclude treaties, or accept sovereign rights or protectorates.

It is understood that no companies nor individuals subject to one Power can exercise sovereign rights in a sphere assigned to the other, except with the assent of the latter.

Article IX.

Commercial or mineral concessions and rights to real property possessed by companies or individuals belonging to either Power shall, if their validity is duly proved, be recognised in the sphere of the other Power.

For deciding on the validity of mineral concessions given by the legitimate authority within thirty miles of either side of the frontier south of the Zambesi, a tribunal of arbitration is to be named by common agreement.

It is understood that such concessions must be worked according to local regulations and laws.

Article X.

In all territories in East and Central Africa belonging to or under the influence of either Power, missionaries of both countries shall have full protection. Religious toleration and freedom for all forms of Divine worship and religious teaching are guaranteed.

Article XI.

The transit of goods across Portuguese territories situated between the East Coast and the British sphere shall not, for a period of twenty-five years from the ratification of this Convention, be subjected to duties in excess of 3 per cent. for imports or for exports. These dues shall in no case have a differential character, and shall not exceed the Customs dues levied on the same goods in the above-mentioned territories.

Her Majesty's Government shall have the option, within five years from the date of the signature of this agreement, to claim freedom of transit for the remainder of the period of twenty-five years on payment of a sum capitalising the annual duties for that period at the rate of £30,000 a year.

Coin and precious metals of all descriptions shall be imported and exported to and from the British sphere free of transit duty.

It is understood that there shall be freedom for the passage of subjects and goods of both Powers across the Zambesi, and through the districts adjoining the left bank of the river situated above the confluence of the Shiré, and those adjoining the right bank of the Zambesi, situated above the confluence of the River Luenha (Ruenga), without hindrance of any description and without payment of transit dues.

It is further understood that in the above-named districts each Power shall have the right, so far as may be reasonably required for the purpose of communication between territories under the influence of the same Power, to construct roads, railways, bridges, and telegraph lines across the district reserved to the other. The two Powers shall have the right of acquiring in these districts on reasonable conditions the land necessary for such objects, and shall receive all other requisite facilities. Portugal shall have the same rights in the British territory on the banks of the Shiré and in the British territory comprised between the Portuguese territory and the banks of Lake Nyassa. Any railway so constructed by one Power on the territory of the other shall be subject to local regulations and laws agreed upon between the two Governments, and in case of differences of opinion, subject to arbitration as hereinafter mentioned.

The two Powers shall also be allowed facilities for constructing on the rivers within the above districts piers and landing-places for the purpose of trade and navigation.

Differences of opinion between the two Governments as to the execution of their respective obligations, incurred in accordance with the provisions of the preceding paragraph, shall be referred to the arbitration of two experts, one of whom shall be chosen on behalf of each Power. These experts shall select an umpire, whose decision, in case of difference between the arbitrators, shall be final. If the two experts cannot agree upon the choice of an umpire, this umpire shall be selected by a neutral Power to be named by the two Governments.

All materials for the construction of roads, railways, bridges, and telegraph lines shall be admitted free of charge.

Article XII.

The navigation of the Zambesi and Shiré, without excepting any of their branches and outlets, shall be entirely free for the ships of all nations.

The Portuguese Government engages to permit and, to facilitate transit for all persons and goods of every description over the waterways of the Zambesi, the Shiré, the Pungwe, the Busi, the Limpopo, the Sabi, and their tributaries, and also over the landways which supply means of communication where these rivers are not navigable.

Article XIII.

Merchant ships of the two Powers shall in the Zambesi, its branches, and outlets have equal freedom of navigation, whether with cargo or ballast, for the transportation of goods and passengers. In the exercise of this navigation the subjects and flags of both Powers shall be treated in all circumstances on a footing of perfect equality, not only for the direct navigation from the open sea to the inland ports of the Zambesi, and *vice versa*, but for the great and small coasting trade, and for boat trade on the course of the river. Consequently, on all the course and mouths of the Zambesi there will be no differential treatment of the subjects of the two Powers; and no exclusive

privilege of navigation will be conceded by either to companies, corporations, or private persons.

The navigation of the Zambesi shall not be subject to any restriction or obligation based merely on the fact of navigation. It shall not be exposed to any obligation in regard to landing-station or depôt, or for breaking bulk, or for compulsory entry into port. In all the extent of the Zambesi the ships and goods in process of transit on the river shall be submitted to no transit dues, whatever their starting-place or destination. No maritime or river toll shall be levied based on the sole fact of navigation, nor any tax on goods on board of ships. There shall only be collected taxes or duties, which shall be an equivalent for services rendered to navigation itself. The tariff of these taxes or duties shall not warrant any differential treatment.

The affluents of the Zambesi shall be in all respects subject to the same rules as the river of which they are tributaries.

The roads, paths, railways, or lateral canals which may be constructed with the special object of correcting the imperfections of the river route on certain sections of the course of the Zambesi, its affluents, branches, and outlets, shall be considered, in their quality of means of communication, as dependencies of this river, and as equally open to the traffic of both Powers. And, as on the river itself, so there shall be collected on these roads, railways, and canals only tolls calculated on the cost of construction, maintenance, and management, and on the profits due to the promoters. As regards the tariff of these tolls, strangers and the natives of the respective territories shall be treated on a footing of perfect equality.

Portugal undertakes to apply the principles of freedom of navigation enunciated in this article on so much of the waters of the Zambesi, its affluents, branches, and outlets as are or may be under her sovereignty, protection, or influence. The rules which she may establish for the safety and control of navigation shall be drawn up in a way to facilitate, as far as possible, the circulation of merchant ships.

Great Britain accepts, under the same reservations, and in identical terms, the obligations undertaken in the preceding articles in respect of so much of the waters of the Zambesi, its

affluences, branches, and outlets as are or may be under her sovereignty, protection, or influence.

Any questions arising out of the provisions of this article shall be referred to a joint commission, and, in case of disagreement, to arbitration.

Another system for the administration and control of the Zambesi may be substituted for the above arrangements by common consent of the Riverain Powers.

Article XIV.

In the interest of both Powers Portugal agrees to grant absolute freedom of passage between the British sphere of influence and Pungwe Bay for all merchandise of every description, and to give the necessary facilities for the improvement of the means of communication.

The Portuguese Government agree to construct a railway between Pungwe and the British sphere. The survey of this line shall be completed within six months, and the two Governments shall agree as to the time within which the railway shall be commenced and completed. If an agreement is not arrived at the Portuguese Government will give the construction of the railway to a company which shall be designated by a mutual Power, to be selected by the two Governments, as being in its judgment competent to undertake the work immediately. The said company shall have all requisite facilities for the acquisition of land, cutting timber, and free importation and supply of materials and labour.

The Portuguese Government shall either itself construct, or shall procure the construction of a road from the highest navigable point of the Pungwe, or other river which may be agreed upon as more suitable for traffic to the British sphere, and shall construct, or procure the construction in Pungwe Bay and on the river of the necessary landing-places.

It is understood that no dues shall be levied on goods in transit by the river, the road, or the railway, exceeding the *maximum* of 3 per cent. under the conditions stipulated in Article XI.

Article XV.

Great Britain and Portugal engage to facilitate telegraphic communication in their respective spheres.

The stipulations contained in Article XIV. as regards the construction of a railway from Pungwe Bay to the interior shall be applicable in all respects to the construction of a telegraph line for communication between the coast and the British sphere south of the Zambesi. Questions as to the points of departure and termination of the line, and as to other details, if not arranged by common consent shall be submitted to the arbitration of experts under the conditions prescribed in Article XI.

Portugal engages to maintain telegraphic service between the coast and the River Ruo, which service shall be open to the use of the subjects of the two Powers without any differential treatment.

Great Britain and Portugal engage to give every facility for the connection of telegraphic lines constructed in their respective spheres.

Details in respect to such connection, and in respect to questions relating to the settlement of through tariffs and other charges, shall, if not settled by common consent, be referred to the arbitration of experts under the conditions prescribed in Article XI.

1. A note shall be addressed to Her Majesty's Government by the Portuguese Government, undertaking to lease for ninety-nine years to persons named by Her Majesty's Government land at the Chinde mouth of the Zambesi, to be used under regulations for the landing, storage, and transshipment of goods. Sites, price, and regulations to be arranged by three Commissioners to be named, one by each of the two Governments and the third by a neutral Power to be selected by them. In case of difference of opinion among the Commissioners the decision of the majority to be final. A note shall also be addressed to the Portuguese Government by Her Majesty's Government undertaking, on the demand of the former, to

lease on similar conditions and for similar purposes to persons named by the Portuguese Government land in some spot on the south-western coast of Lake Nyassa which shall be agreed upon between the two Governments as suitable for the purpose.

2. Notes shall be exchanged between Her Majesty's Government and the Portuguese Government with regard to the traffic rates to be charged on the railway similar to those exchanged on the 20th of August, 1890.

3. Notes shall be exchanged between the two Governments, agreeing that the importation of ardent spirits to either bank of the Zambesi and Shiré by those rivers, whether in the British or Portuguese sphere, shall be interdicted, and that the authorities of the two States shall agree upon the arrangements necessary to prevent and punish infractions of this article.



APPENDIX XXXII.

THE CHARTER OF THE BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA COMPANY.

VICTORIA, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Queen, Defender of the Faith.

To all to whom these presents shall come, greeting :—

Whereas, a humble Petition has been presented to us in our Council by the most noble James Duke of Abercorn, Companion of the most honourable Order of the Bath; the most noble Alexander William George, Duke of Fife, Knight of the most ancient and most noble Order of the Thistle, Privy Councillor; the Right Honourable Edric Frederick Lord Gifford, V.C.; Cecil • John Rhodes, of Kimberley, in the Cape Colony, Member of the Executive Council and of the House of Assembly of the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope; Alfred Beit, of 29, Holborn Viaduct, London, merchant; Albert Henry George Grey, of Howick, Northumberland, Esquire; and George Cawston, of 18, Lennox Gardens, London, Esquire, barrister-at-law.

And whereas the said Petition states amongst other things:—

That the petitioners and others are associated for the purpose of forming a Company or Association, to be incorporated, if to us should seem fit, for the objects in the said petition set forth, under the corporate name of the British South Africa Company.

That the existence of a powerful British Company, controlled by those of our subjects in whom we have confidence, and having its principal field of operations in that region of South Africa lying to the north of Bechuanaland, and to the west of Portuguese East Africa, would be advantageous to the commercial and other interests of our subjects in the United Kingdom and in our Colonies.

That the Petitioners desire to carry into effect divers concessions and agreements which have been made by certain of the chiefs and tribes inhabiting the said region, and such other concessions, agreements, grants, and treaties as the Petitioners may hereafter obtain within the said region, or elsewhere, in Africa, with the view of promoting trade, commerce, civilisation, and good government (including the regulation of liquor traffic with the natives), in the territories which are, or may be, comprised or referred to in such concessions, agreements, grants, and treaties, as aforesaid.

That the Petitioners believe that, if the said concessions, agreements, grants, and treaties can be carried into effect, the condition of the natives inhabiting the said territories will be materially improved and their civilisation advanced, and an organisation established which will tend to the suppression of the slave trade in the said territories, and to the opening up of the said territories to the immigration of Europeans, and to the lawful trade and commerce of our subjects and of other nations.

That the success of the enterprise in which the Petitioners are engaged would be greatly advanced, if it should seem fit to us to grant them our Royal Charter of Incorporation as a British Company under the said name or title, or such other name or title, and with such powers as to us may seem fit for the purpose of more effectually carrying into effect the objects aforesaid.

That large sums of money have been subscribed for the

purposes of the intended Company by the Petitioners and others, who are prepared also to subscribe or to procure such further sums as may hereafter be found requisite for the development of the said enterprise, in the event of our being pleased to grant to them our Royal Charter of incorporation as aforesaid.

Now, therefore, we, having taken the said Petition into our Royal consideration in our Council, and being satisfied that the intentions of the Petitioners are praiseworthy and deserve encouragement, and that the enterprise in the Petition described may be productive of the benefits set forth therein, by our prerogative Royal and of our especial grace, certain knowledge, and mere motion, have constituted, erected, and incorporated, and by this our Charter for us and our heirs and Royal successors do constitute, erect, and incorporate into one body, politic and corporate, by the name of the British South Africa Company, the said James, Duke of Abercorn, Alexander William George, Duke of Fife, Edric Frederick, Lord Gifford, Cecil John Rhodes, Alfred Beit, Albert Henry George Grey, and George Cawston, and such other persons and such bodies as from time to time become and are members of the body politic and corporate by these presents constituted, erected, and incorporated with perpetual succession and a common seal, with power to break, alter, or renew the same at discretion, and with the further authorities, powers, and privileges conferred, and subject to the conditions imposed by this our Charter. And we do hereby accordingly will, ordain, give, grant, constitute, appoint, and declare as follows (that is to say):

1. The principal field of the operations of the British South Africa Company (in this our Charter referred to as 'the Company') shall be the region of South Africa lying immediately to the north of British Bechuanaland, to the north and west of the South African Republic, and to the west of the Portuguese dominions.

2. The Company is hereby authorised and empowered to hold, use, and retain for the purposes of the Company, and on the terms of this our Charter, the full benefit of the concessions and agreements made as aforesaid, so far as they are valid, or any of them, and all interests, authorities, and powers comprised or referred to in the said concessions and agreements.

Provided always that nothing herein contained shall prejudice or affect any other valid and subsisting concessions or agreements which may have been made by any of the chiefs or tribes aforesaid. And in particular nothing herein contained shall prejudice or affect certain concessions granted in and subsequent to the year 1880, relating to the territory usually known as the District of the Tati, nor shall anything herein contained be construed as giving any jurisdiction, administrative or otherwise, within the said District of the Tati, the limits of which district are as follows, *viz.* :—From the place where the Shasi River rises to its junction with the Tati and Ramaquaban Rivers, thence along the Ramaquaban River to where it rises, and thence along the watershed of those rivers.

3. The Company is hereby further authorised and empowered, subject to the approval of one of our principal Secretaries of State (herein referred to as 'our Secretary of State') from time to time, to acquire by any concession, agreement, grant, or treaty, all or any rights, interests, authorities, jurisdictions, and powers of any kind or nature whatever, including powers necessary for the purposes of government, and the preservation of public order in or for the protection of territories, lands, or property comprised or referred to in the concessions and agreements made as aforesaid or affecting other territories, lands, or property in Africa, or the inhabitants thereof, and to hold, use, and exercise such territories, lands, property, rights, interests, authorities, jurisdictions, and powers respectively, for the purposes of the Company and on the terms of this our Charter.

4. Provided that no powers of government or administration shall be exercised under or in relation to any such last-mentioned concession, agreement, grant, or treaty, until a copy of such concession, agreement, grant, or treaty, in such form and with such maps or particulars as our Secretary of State approves, verified as he requires, has been transmitted to him, and he has signified his approval thereof either absolutely or subject to any conditions or reservations. And provided also that no rights, interests, authorities, jurisdictions, or powers of any description shall be acquired by the Company within the said District of the Tati as hereinbefore described without the previous consent in writing of the owners for the time being of

the concessions above referred to relating to the said district, and the approval of our Secretary of State.

5. The Company shall be bound by and shall fulfil all and singular the stipulations on its part contained in any such concession, agreement, grant, or treaty as aforesaid, subject to any subsequent agreement affecting those stipulations approved by our Secretary of State.

6. The Company shall always be and remain British in character and domicile, and shall have its principal office in Great Britain, and the Company's principal representative in South Africa, and the Directors shall always be natural-born British subjects or persons who have been naturalised as British subjects by or under an Act of Parliament of our United Kingdom; but this Article shall not disqualify any person nominated a Director by this our Charter, or any person whose election as a Director shall have been approved by our Secretary of State, from acting in that capacity.

7. In case at any time any difference arises between any chief or tribe inhabiting any of the territories aforesaid and the Company, that difference shall, if our Secretary of State so require, be submitted by the Company to him for his decision, and the Company shall act in accordance with such decision.

8. If at any time our Secretary of State thinks fit to dissent from or object to any of the dealings of the Company with any foreign Power, and to make known to the Company any suggestion founded on that dissent or objection, the Company shall act in accordance with such suggestion.

9. If at any time our Secretary of State thinks fit to object to the exercise by the Company of any authority, power, or right within any part of the territories aforesaid, on the ground of there being an adverse claim to or in respect of that part, the Company shall defer to that objection until such time as any such claim has been withdrawn or finally dealt with or settled by our Secretary of State.

10. The Company shall to the best of its ability preserve peace and order in such ways and manners as it shall consider necessary, and may with that object make ordinances (to be approved by our Secretary of State), and may establish and maintain a force of police.

11. The Company shall to the best of its ability discourage and, so far as may be practicable, abolish by degrees any system of slave trade or domestic servitude in the territories aforesaid.

12. The Company shall regulate the traffic in spirits and other intoxicating liquors within the territories aforesaid, so as, as far as practicable, to prevent the sale of any spirits or other intoxicating liquor to any natives.

13. The Company as such, or its officers as such, shall not in any way interfere with the religion of any class or tribe of the peoples of the territories aforesaid or of any of the inhabitants thereof, except so far as may be necessary in the interests of humanity, and all forms of religious worship or religious ordinances may be exercised within the said territories, and no hindrance shall be offered thereto except as aforesaid.

14. In the administration of justice to the said peoples or inhabitants, careful regard shall always be had to the customs and laws of the class, or tribe, or nation to which the parties respectively belong, especially with respect to the holding, possession, transfer, and disposition of lands and goods, and testate or intestate succession thereto, and marriage, divorce, and legitimacy, and other rights of property and personal rights, but subject to any British laws which may be in force in any of the territories aforesaid, and applicable to the peoples or inhabitants thereof.

15. If at any time our Secretary of State thinks fit to dissent from or object to any part of the proceedings or system of the Company relative to the peoples of the territories aforesaid, or to any of the inhabitants thereof, in respect of slavery or religion or the administration of justice, or any other matter, he shall make known to the Company his dissent or objection, and the Company shall act in accordance with his directions duly signified.

16. In the event of the Company acquiring any harbour or harbours, the Company shall freely afford all facilities for or to our ships therein without payment except reasonable charges for work done or services rendered or materials or things supplied.

c 17. The Company shall furnish annually to our Secretary of State, as soon as conveniently may be after the close of the

financial year, accounts of its expenditure for administrative purposes, and of all sums received by it by way of public revenue, as distinguished from its commercial profits, during the financial year, together with a report as to its public proceedings, and the condition of the territories within the sphere of its operations. The Company shall also, on or before the commencement of each financial year, furnish to our Secretary of State an estimate of its expenditure for administrative purposes, and of its public revenue (as above defined) for the ensuing year. The Company shall, in addition, from time to time, furnish to our Secretary of State any reports, accounts, or information with which he may require to be furnished.

18. The several officers of the Company shall, subject to the rules of official subordination and to any regulations that may be agreed upon, communicate freely with our High Commissioner in South Africa, and any others our officers, who may be stationed within any of the territories aforesaid, and shall pay due regard to any requirements, suggestions, or requests which the said High Commissioner or other officers shall make to them or any of them, and the Company shall be bound to enforce the observance of this Article.

19. The Company may hoist and use on its buildings and elsewhere in the territories aforesaid, and on its vessels, such distinctive flag indicating the British character of the Company as our Secretary of State and the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty shall from time to time approve.

20. Nothing in this our Charter shall be deemed to authorise the Company to set up or grant any monopoly of trade, provided that the establishment of or the grant of concessions for banks, railways, tramways, docks, telegraphs, waterworks, or other similar undertakings or the establishment of any system of patent or copyright approved by our Secretary of State, shall not be deemed monopolies for this purpose. The Company shall not, either directly or indirectly, hinder any Company or persons who now are, or hereafter may be, lawfully and peaceably carrying on any business concern or venture within the said district of the Tati hereinbefore described, but shall, by permitting and facilitating transit by every lawful means to and from the district of the Tati, across its own territories, or

where it has jurisdiction in that behalf, and by all other reasonable and lawful means, encourage, assist, and protect all British subjects who now are, or hereafter may be, lawfully and peaceably engaged in the prosecution of a lawful enterprise within the said district of the Tati.

21. For the preservation of elephants and other game, the Company may make such other regulations and (notwithstanding anything hereinbefore contained) may impose such licence duties on the killing or taking of elephants or other game as they may think fit; provided that nothing in such regulations shall extend to diminish or interfere with any hunting rights which may have been, or may hereafter be, reserved to any native chiefs or tribes by treaty, save so far as any such regulations may relate to the establishment and enforcement of a close season

22. The Company shall be subject to and shall perform and undertake all the obligations contained in or undertaken by ourselves under any treaty, agreement, or arrangement between ourselves and any other State or Power, whether already made or hereafter to be made. In all matters relating to the observance of this Article, or to the exercise within the Company's territory for the time being of any jurisdiction exercisable by us under the Foreign Jurisdiction Acts, the Company shall conform to and observe and carry out all such directions as may from time to time be given in that behalf by our Secretary of State, and the Company shall appoint all necessary officers to perform such duties, and shall provide such Courts and other requisites as may from time to time be necessary for the administration of justice.

23. The original share capital of the Company shall be £1,000,000, divided into 1,000,000 shares of £1 each.

24. The Company is hereby further specially authorised and empowered for the purposes of this our Charter from time to time—

I.—To issue shares of different classes or descriptions, to increase the share capital of the Company, and to borrow moneys by debentures or other obligations.

II.—To acquire and hold, and to charter or otherwise deal with, steam vessels and other vessels.

III.—To establish or authorise banking companies and other companies, and undertakings or associations of every description, for purposes consistent with the provisions of this our Charter.

IV.—To make and maintain roads, railways, telegraphs, harbours, and any other works which may tend to the development or improvement of the territories of the Company.

V.—To carry on mining and other industries, and to make concessions of mining, forestal, or other rights.

VI.—To improve, develop, clear, plant, irrigate, and cultivate any lands included within the territories of the Company.

VII.—To settle any such territories and lands as aforesaid, and to aid and promote immigration.

VIII.—To grant lands for terms of years or in perpetuity, and either absolutely or by way of mortgage or otherwise.

IX.—To make loans or contributions of money or money's worth for promoting any of the objects of the Company.

X.—To acquire and hold personal property.

XI.—To acquire and hold (without licence in mortmain or other authority than this our Charter) lands in the United Kingdom, not exceeding five acres in all, at any one time for the purposes of the offices and business of the Company, and (subject to any local law) lands in any of our colonies or possessions and elsewhere, convenient for carrying on the management of the affairs of the Company, and to dispose from time to time of any such lands when not required for that purpose.

XII.—To carry on any lawful commerce, trade, pursuit, business operations, or dealing whatsoever in connection with the objects of the Company.

XIII.—To establish and maintain agencies in our colonies and possessions, and elsewhere.

XIV.—To sue and be sued by the Company's name of incorporation, as well in our Courts in our United Kingdom, or in our Courts in our colonies or possessions, or in our Courts in foreign countries or elsewhere.

XV.—To do all lawful things incidental or conducive to the exercise or enjoyment of the rights, interests, authorities, and

powers of the Company in this, our Charter, expressed or referred to, or any of them.

25. Within one year after the date of this, our Charter, or such extended period as may be certified by our Secretary of State, there shall be executed by the members of the Company for the time being a Deed of Settlement, providing as far as necessary for—

I.—The further definition of the objects and purposes of the Company.

II.—The classes or descriptions of shares into which the capital of the Company is divided, and the calls to be made in respect thereof, and the terms and conditions of membership of the Company.

III.—The division and distribution of profits.

IV.—General Meetings of the Company; the appointment by our Secretary of State (if so required by him) of an Official Director, and the number, qualification, appointment, remuneration, rotation, removal, and powers of Directors of the Company, and of other officers of the Company.

V.—The registration of members of the Company, and the transfer of shares in the capital of the Company.

VI.—The preparation of annual accounts to be submitted to the members at a General Meeting.

VII.—The audit of those accounts by independent auditors.

VIII.—The making of bye-laws.

IX.—The making and using of official seals of the Company.

X.—The constitution and regulation of Committees of Local Boards of Management.

XI.—The making and execution of supplementary Deeds of Settlement.

XII.—The winding-up (in case of need) of the Company's affairs.

XIII.—The government and regulation of the Company and of its affairs.

XIV.—Any other matters usual or proper to be provided for in respect of a Chartered Company.

26. The Deed of Settlement shall, before the execution thereof, be submitted to and approved by the Lords of our Council, and a certificate of their approval thereof, signed by the Clerk

of our Council, shall be endorsed on this, our Charter, and be conclusive evidence of such approval, and on the Deed of Settlement, and such Deed of Settlement shall take effect from the date of such approval, and shall be binding upon the Company, its members, officers, and servants, and for all other purposes whatsoever.

27. The provisions of the Deed of Settlement or of any supplementary Deed for the time being in force, may be from time to time repealed, varied, or added to by a supplementary Deed, made and executed in such manner as the Deed of Settlement prescribes. Provided that the provisions of any such Deed relative to the Official Director shall not be repealed, varied, or added to without the express approval of our Secretary of State.

28. The Members of the Company shall be individually liable for the debts, contracts, engagements, and liabilities of the Company to the extent only of the amount, if any, for the time being unpaid, on the shares held by them respectively.

29. Until such Deed of Settlement as aforesaid takes effect the said James, Duke of Abercorn, shall be the President; the said Alexander William George, Duke of Fife, shall be Vice-President; and the said Edric Frederick, Lord Gifford, Cecil John Rhodes, Alfred Beit, Albert Henry George Grey, and George Cawston shall be the Directors of the Company; and may on behalf of the Company do all things necessary or proper to be done under this, our Charter, by or on behalf of the Company: Provided always that, notwithstanding anything contained in the Deed of Settlement of the Company, the said James, Duke of Abercorn, Alexander William George, Duke of Fife, and Albert Henry George Grey, shall not be subject to retire from office in accordance with its provisions, but shall be and remain Directors of the Company until death, incapacity to act, or resignation, as the case may be.

30. And we do further will, ordain, and declare that this, our Charter, shall be acknowledged by our Governors, and our naval and military officers, and our Consuls, and our other officers in our colonies and possessions, and on the high seas, and elsewhere, and they shall severally give full force and effect to this our Charter, and shall recognise and be in all things aiding to the Company and its officers.

31. And we do further will, ordain, and declare that this our Charter shall be taken, construed, and adjudged in the most favourable and beneficial sense for, and to the best advantage of, the Company, as well in our Courts in our United Kingdom, and in our Courts in our colonies or possessions, and in our Courts in foreign countries or elsewhere, notwithstanding that there may appear to be in this our Charter any non-recital, mis-recital, uncertainty, or imperfection.

32. And we do further will, ordain, and declare that this our Charter shall subsist and continue valid, notwithstanding any lawful change in the name of the Company or in the Deed of Settlement thereof, such change being made with the previous approval of our Secretary of State, signified under his hand.

33. And we do further will, ordain, and declare that it shall be lawful for us, our heirs, and successors, and we do hereby expressly reserve to ourselves, our heirs, and successors, the right and power by writing, under the Great Seal of the United Kingdom, at the end of twenty-five years from the date of this our Charter, and at the end of every succeeding period of ten years, to add to, alter, or repeal any of the provisions of this our Charter, or to enact other provisions in substitution for or in addition to any of its existing provisions: Provided that the right and power thus reserved shall be exercised only in relation to so much of this our Charter as relates to administrative and public matters. And we do further expressly reserve to ourselves, our heirs, and successors, the right to take over any buildings or works belonging to the Company, and used exclusively or mainly for administrative or public purposes, on payment to the Company of such reasonable compensation as may be agreed, or as failing agreement may be settled by the Commissioners of our Treasury. And we do further appoint, direct, and declare, that any such writing, under the said Great Seal, shall have full effect, and be binding upon the Company, its members, officers, and servants, and all other persons, and shall be of the same force, effect, and validity, as if its provisions had been part of and contained in these presents.

34. Provided always, and we do further declare, that nothing in this our Charter shall be deemed or taken in anywise to limit or restrict the exercise of any of our rights or powers with

reference to the protection of any territories or with reference to the government thereof, should we see fit to include the same within our dominions.

35. And we do, lastly, will, ordain, and declare, without prejudice to any Power, to repeal this our Charter, by law belonging to us, our heirs, and successors, or to any of our Courts, Ministers, or officers, independently of this present declaration and reservation, that in case, at any time, it is made to appear to us, in our Council, that the Company has substantially failed to observe and conform to the provisions of this our Charter, or that the Company is not exercising its powers under the concessions, agreements, grants, and treaties aforesaid, so as to advance the interests which the Petitioners have represented to us to be likely to be advanced by the grant of this our Charter, it shall be lawful for us, our heirs, and successors, and we do hereby expressly reserve and take to ourselves, our heirs, and successors, the right and power, by writing, under the Great Seal of our United Kingdom, to revoke this our Charter, and to revoke and annul the privileges, powers, and rights hereby granted to the Company.

In witness whereof we have caused these our letters to be made patent.

Witness ourself at Westminster, the 29th day of October, in the fifty-third year of our reign.

By warrant under the Queen's sign manual.

Muir Mackenzie.

ADDENDUM.

THE ANGLO-GERMAN AGREEMENT IN SOUTH-WEST AFRICA.

THAT part of the Anglo-German Agreement signed at Berlin on July 1, 1891, and concerning South-West Africa is as follows:—

Article III.

‘In South-West Africa the sphere in which the exercise of influence is reserved to Germany is bounded—

‘(1) To the south by a line commencing at the mouth of

the Orange River, and ascending the north bank of that river to the point of its intersection by the 20th degree of east longitude.

‘(2) To the east by a line commencing at the above-named point, and following the 20th degree of east longitude to the point of its intersection by the 22nd parallel of south latitude, it runs eastwards along the parallel to the point of its intersection by the 21st degree of east longitude; thence it follows that degree northward to a point of its intersection by the 18th parallel of south latitude: it runs eastward along that parallel until it reaches the river Chobe, and descends the centre of the main channel of that river to its junction with the Zambesi, when it terminates. It is understood that under this arrangement Germany shall have free access from her Protectorate to the Zambesi by a strip of territory which shall at no point be less than twenty English miles in width.

‘The sphere in which the exercise of influence is reserved to Great Britain is bounded to the west and north-west by the above-mentioned line. It includes Lake Ngami.

‘The course of the above boundary is traced in general accordance with a map officially prepared for the British Government in 1889. The delimitation of the southern boundary of the British territory of Walvisch Bay is reserved for arbitration, unless it shall be settled by the consent of the two Powers within two years from the date of the conclusion of this agreement. The two Powers agree that, pending such settlement, the passage of the subjects and the transit of goods of both Powers through the territory now in dispute, shall be free; and the treatment of their subjects in that territory shall be in all respects equal. No dues shall be levied on goods in transit. Until a settlement shall be effected the territory shall be considered natural.’

GENERAL INDEX.

A.

ARERCORN, Duke of, 27.
 Aberdeen, 135, 157.
 Act, the Voluntary, 175.
 Adamantia, 150.
 Adderley, Sir Ch., 18.
 Addo Bush, 36, 72, 86.
 Adelaide, 147.
 Africa, Equatorial, 245.
 Afrikander 'Taal,' 189.
 Afrikanders, 31.
 Agricultural Shows, 227.
 Agulhas banks, 61, 127, 226.
 — Current, 36, 37, 85.
 Albany, 101, 136, 142, 231.
 Albuquerque, 160.
 Aldebaran, 218.
 Alexander, Sir W., 8.
 Alexandra Co., 258, 260.
 Alexandria, 86, 144, 231.
 Alfred Co., 258, 260.
 Algeria, 90.
 Algoa Bay, 1, 14, 16, 40, 43, 72, 126,
 137, 141.
 Alice, 145, 171.
 Aliwal North, 91, 104, 149, 158,
 225, 231.
 Allard, Carolus, 214.
 'Ama,' 214.
 Amabaca, 291.
 Amalienstein, 131.
 Amatolas, the, 62, 86.
 Amatongaland, 29, 30, 32, 48, 77,
 289.
 Ama Xosa, 288.
 Amiens, Treaty of, 12.
 Andersson's Vlei, 81.
 Angoche, 327.
 Angora goats, 234.

Angra Pequena, 41, 124, 125, 223.
 Angras Juntas, 41.
 Antarctic Current, 37.
 Arab, 218, 231.
 Arcachon, 226.
 Area of Cape Colony, 31.
 — of Electoral Circles, 106, 107.
 — of Natal, 258.
 — of the O. F. S., 280.
 — of the Transvaal, 269.
 Armenia, 161.
 Armstrong, Bishop, 178.
 Aroangwa R., 308.
 Artesian wells, 300.
 Aruwhimi Forest, 55.
 Asbestos, 225.
 Assembly, Legislative, 106, 167.
 Astronomer Royal, 207.
 Atherstone, Dr., 151.
 Anghrabies, Falls of, 70, 301.
 Austerlitz, 12.
 Australia, 110, 159, 210, 230, 234,
 236, 246, 281.
 — South, 229, 230.
 Azores, the, 2.

B.

Bailey, Capt., 207.
 Baines, 56, 78, 272, 319, 328.
 — Kloof, 120.
 Baird, Sir D., 242.
 Bakalahari, 304.
 Baldwin, 80.
 Balfour, 147.
 Ballot, 211.
 Bamangwato, 303, 304, 322.
 Bantú race, 32, 286, 287.
 Banyai, the, 323.
 Baptism of Slaves, 176.

- Barberton, 270, 273.
 Barentz, 4.
 Barkly, Sir H., 19, 24, 105, 162, 167.
 Barkly East, 149, 162.
 — Pass, 53, 74, 162.
 — West, 157.
 Barotse country, 29, 316.
 Barretto, Francisco, 327.
 Barristers, Cape, 193.
 Barrow, Sir J., 13, 14, 59, 97, 133, 201.
 Bashee R., 74, 265.
 Basutoland, 23, 24, 29, 30, 34, 51, 69, 164, 181, 289, 292, 293, 295.
 Basutos, 111, 148.
 Batanga, the, 316.
 Batavia, 118.
 Bathurst, 142, 162.
 Baviaans Kloof, 52, 131.
 Beaconsfield, 157, 158.
 Beaufort, W., 83, 100, 101, 133, 134, 157, 188.
 Bechuanaland, British, 25, 29, 30, 34, 87, 289, 298, 299, 300, 309.
 Bechuanas, 155, 214, 215.
 Bedford, 147, 158.
 Bees, African, 88.
 Beira, 241, 247.
 Beit, Albert, 27.
 Benematapa, 310, 311.
 Bent, Th., 317.
 Berber, 216.
 Berbice, 12.
 Berg R., 41, 71.
 Berlin (Cape), 148, 162, 272.
 — (Europe), 25.
 Bernard, 211.
 Berrange, 211.
 Bethelsdorp, 146.
 Bethlehem, 281, 282.
 Bethulie, 281, 282.
 Bird Islands, E., 43.
 — W., 40.
 Birds, Cape, 95.
 Birkenhead, The, 40.
 Bishop's Court, 65, 178.
 Bishopstow, 262.
 Bismarek, Prince, 25.
 Blanco, 129.
 Bleek, Dr., 212, 215, 216.
 Bloemfontein, 91, 158, 161, 177, 281.
 Bloemhof, 270.
 Blood R., 75.
 Blythswood, 146, 188, 193.
 Board, Matrimonial, 165, 250.
 — of Education, 184.
 Bodleian Library, the, 312.
 Boer War, 23.
 Boers, 11, 17, 91, 154, 159, 163, 250, 251, 253, 280, 283.
 Bokkeveldt, 50, 71, 122, 272.
 Bombay Coolies, 218, 246, 263.
 Bomvanaland, 288, 291.
 Bond, Mr., 80.
 Bond, the Afrikander, 171, 172.
 Booma Pass, 150.
 Boomplaats, 280.
 Borekenhagen, 172.
 Bordeaux, 228.
 Boschberg, The, 38, 51, 146.
 Boshof, 281.
 Bosi R., 309.
 Bosjesman's district, 137.
 Botletle R., 56, 79, 303.
 Botma, 16.
 Bradshaw, 80.
 Brak R., 73.
 Brakfontein, 161.
 Brand, President, 154, 282.
 Brant Vlei, 122.
 Braunschweig, 148.
 Brazil, 312.
 Bredasdorp, 131.
 Breede R., 71, 127.
 Breidbach, 148.
 Britstown, 135.
 Bromhead, 21, 75.
 Bronker's Spruit, 23.
 Bruintjes Hoogte, 134.
 Brussels, 25.
 Bubi, 78.
 Buffalo R., 44, 248, 240.
 Buffels R., 72, 74, 75.
 Buissine, 211.
 Buluwayo, 303, 304.
 Burchell, 97.
 Burgers, President, 27, 182, 278, 279.
 Burghers, 164, 219, 220.
 Burghersdorp, 91, 141, 158, 161, 225.
 Bushman's Nek, 53, 75.
 — R., 138, 144.

Bushman, 160, 215, 217, 285, 286,
287.
Butler, 97.
Button, 272.
Byzantium, 3.

C.

Cables, Submarine, 242.
Cabo di Totos Tormentos, 1, 40,
160.
Cafre of Guine, 214, 310.
Caille, Abbé de la, 14, 57, 206,
211.
Caledon, 123, 128, 157.
— Lord, 200.
— R., 69, 70, 281.
Calvinia, 70, 122, 124.
Cambridge, 189.
Camdeboo Flats, 133.
Camissa, 71, 314.
Camoens, 3, 35.
Campbell, 157.
Canada, 28, 83, 102, 137, 140, 159,
230, 252.
Cango Brandy, 127.
— Caves, 128.
Cape Agulhas, 28, 38, 39, 126, 160.
— Blanco, 2.
— Bodajor, 2.
— Corrientes, 46, 311.
— de Verde, 2.
— Frio, 24, 50, 53, 125.
— Hangklip, 42, 120.
— Maria, 46.
— of Good Hope, 35, 92.
— Padrone, 43.
— Peninsula, 35, 36, 48, 62, 82,
112.
— Point, 14, 36, 42.
— Recife, 43, 138.
— San Sebastian, 46.
— Seal, 43.
— St. Blaize, 43.
— St. Francis, 38, 43.
Capetown, 89, 91, 104, 112, 114,
141, 157, 177, 187, 243.
Carbineers, Natal, 267.
Cardiff, 225.
Carnarvon (district), 70, 135.
— Lord, 20, 136, 154, 162.
Cashan Mts., 52, 77, 97, 275.
Castle Line, 246, 247.
Castle of Capetown, 112, 114, 164.
Catfield Shoals, 46.
Cathcart, 149.
Cawston, Mr., 27.
Cedarberg, 52, 70, 84, 86, 232.
Census, the 1891, 201.
Ceros, 71, 89, 122, 157.
Cetywayo, 17, 76, 116, 296.
Ceylon, 312.
Chainouqua, 314.
Chaka, 288.
Chalumna R., 74.
Chamber of XVII, 113, 165, 197.
Champagne Castle, 51, 69.
Chapman, the, 139.
Chapong Hills, 303.
Chard, 21, 75.
Chelmsford, Lord, 17, 121.
Chiloane, 327.
Chinese, the, 246.
Chobona, 314.
Chocoqua, 314.
Church of England, 179.
— the Dopper, 181.
— the Dutch, 130, 165, 166, 174,
175, 179, 180, 181, 182, 188.
— the Roman, 176, 179.
Circles, Electoral, 104, 105.
Circuits, 200, 201.
Clanwilliam, 101, 123.
Claremont, 118.
Classis of Amsterdam, 176.
Claughton, Bishop, 178.
Coalfields, 149, 224, 245, 264, 265.
Cockburn Shoals, 46.
Cockscomb, the, 52, 72.
Coerney R., 137.
Coghill, 21.
Cogman's Kloof, 162.
Colenso, Bishop, 178, 262.
Colesberg, 70, 101, 133, 147, 156,
231.
— Kopjie, 152.
College, the Diocesan, 188, 190.
Colleges, 185, 190.
Colley, Sir G., 23.
Collins, Col., 139.
Comforter, the sick, 175, 182.
Commandant, 283.
Commandos, 16, 220, 284.
Commerce, Cape, 244, 255.
Commissaris politique, 175.

- Commissioner, the High, 34, 104,
 163, 164.
 Commissioner's Salt Pan, 81.
 Commissioners, Civil, 199.
 Companies, Steamship, 246, 247.
 Company, British E. I., 7.
 — British I. S. A., 26, 33, 316,
 319.
 — Cape Copper, 41, 223.
 — Dutch E. I., 5, 10, 15, 100, 103,
 165, 175, 182, 202.
 — London and Liverpool, 305.
 — the N. Borneo, 319.
 — the Royal Niger, 319.
 Compassberg, the, 50, 134.
 Concessions, S. African, 209.
 Concordia, 121.
 Confederation, S. A., 20.
 Conference Hill, 75.
 Congo, 125, 245.
 — Conference, 25.
 — Free State, 29.
 — R., 214.
 — Valley, the, 83.
 Congregationalists, 179.
 Conradie, 211.
 Constantia, 82, 99, 228.
 Convention, Anglo Portuguese,
 308, 309, 325.
 — London, 270.
 — Pretoria, 270.
 — Sand River, 22, 269, 286.
 Convicts, 18.
 Coode, Sir J., 44, 148.
 Copper Mines, 121, 125.
 Coptic languages, 216.
 Cornets Spruit, 161, 293.
 Cortado, 314.
 Council of Policy, 164, 175, 197,
 198.
 — the Legislative, 104, 106, 167.
 — the Privy, 177, 200.
 Councils, Divisional, 172, 173, 201.
 Counties, Natal, 258.
 Court, Eastern Districts, 199, 200.
 — Ecclesiastical, 175.
 — of Landdrost, 198.
 — the High, 199.
 — the Supreme, 199.
 — the Vice Admiral's, 199.
 Courts, Periodical, 200.
 Cradock, 101, 157, 201, 231.
 Cradock, Sir J., 136, 202, 203.
 Craig, General, 12, 249, 252.
 Cricket, 191.
 Crocidolite, 225.
 Crocodile R., 52, 274, 275.
 Crown Lands, 204.
 Cumming, Gordon, 97, 147, 300.
 Cunene R., 28, 46, 50, 126, 320.
 Curfew, the, 267.
 Currents, ocean, 37.
 — Voltas, 41.
 Customs, Cape, 236.
 — Natal, 265.
 Cyphergat, 61, 224.
 D.
 Daggaboers Nek, 53.
 Damaraland, 30, 33, 34, 41, 64,
 89, 125, 286.
 Damaras, 24, 111, 125, 214, 289.
 Dampier, 256.
 Danger Point, 40, 42.
 Daniel's Kuil, 157.
 Davagul, 313.
 Davis, 213.
 Dawnay, Hon. G., 80.
 de Aar, 136, 141, 240.
 de Beers Mine, 152.
 — Pass, 53.
 Debe Nek, 74.
 Debt, Cape, 239, 349.
 — Natal, 266.
 Defence, Natal, 267.
 de Chavonnes, 183.
 de Gama, Francisco, 312.
 de Vasco, 3, 160, 255, 311.
 de Kaap, 273, 274.
 Delagoa Bay, 22, 30, 46, 47, 68,
 241, 255, 273, 278, 327, 360.
 de Mist, Commissary, 143, 183,
 272.
 Diamond Mines, 19, 70, 111, 150,
 152, 153, 164, 244.
 Diaz, I, 3, 40, 160.
 Diego, 313.
 Dinizulu, 297.
 Dioceses, S. A., 177.
 Diu, 313.
 Divisions of Natal, 258.
 Doddington, the, 40.
 Dommett Shoals, 46.
 Donkin, Sir R. S., 140.

Donkin's Bay, 41.
 Doorn Nek, 137.
 — R., 71.
 Douglas, 157.
 Douglass, Mr., 142, 235.
 Drakenberg, 18, 51, 68, 74, 77.
 Drakenstein, 9, 71, 211, 228.
 'Drift,' a, 161.
 Dromedaris, the, 6.
 Drostdy, 199, 242.
 Drummond, Professor, 54.
 Duarte Barbosa, 310.
 Duckett, Mr., 230.
 Dudley, Countess of, 151.
 Dundee, 265.
 Dunn, chief, 221, 297.
 Dunnsland, 297.
 Durban, 36, 245, 259, 261, 262,
 263.
 — (Cape), 42.
 Durbanville, 157.
 Dutch, the, 5, 6, 312, 313, 314.
 du Toit, Rev. S. J., 172, 211.
 Dutoit's pass, 152.
 Dwika R., 72.
 Dysseldorp, 131.

E.

East London, 44, 104, 158, 225,
 241.
 Eastern Province, 62.
 Edinburgh, 189, 193.
 — Duke of, 162.
 Egan, Dr., 64.
 Elim, 131.
 Elizabeth Cove, 41.
 Elliott, H. G., 170.
 Elphinstone, Admiral, 12.
 Emancipation, Slave, 17.
 Emlalasi, 76. •
 Enon, 146.
 Episcopalianism, 177.
 Ermelo, 270.
 Ersteling, 276.
 Escorial, 232.
 Esselen, Dr., 188.
 Essequibo, 12.
 Estcourt, 50, 262.
 Etshowe, 76.
 Eucalyptus, 80.
 Everitt, Lieut., 137.

Examinations, Cape, 189.
 Expenditure, Basutoland, 296.
 — Cape, 235.
 — Natal, 265.
 — O. F. S., 280.
 — Transkeian, 238.
 — Transvaal, 277.
 Exports, Cape, 234.

F.

Fairbairn, Mr., 167.
 Fairview, 224.
 False Bay, 37, 42, 112, 116.
 Faure, Mr., 211.
 Fauresmith, 281.
 Feudal System, 103.
 Field cornet, 102, 284.
 Fingoes, 148, 170, 208.
 Fingoland, 290.
 Fiscal, the, 165, 166, 197, 251.
 Fish, Cape, 225.
 — River, 15, 44, 68, 73, 97, 101,
 136, 138, 146, 286, 288.
 Fitzherbert, Humphrey, 7.
 Flushing, 247.
 Formosa Peak, 53, 71.
 Forster, Right Hon. W. E., 26,
 302.
 Fort Beaufort, 142, 147, 158, 171.
 — Charter, 325.
 — Pearson, 76.
 — Salisbury, 244, 325.
 — Tonedos, 76.
 — Tuli, 325.
 — Victoria, 324.
 Franchise, the Cape, 105, 109,
 110, 169, 170, 171, 205, 209,
 250, 337, 338.
 Frankfort, 148.
 Fransche Hoek, 9, 53, 120, 210.
 Fraserburg, 122, 133, 135.
 Freeholds, Cape, 203, 204, 205,
 209, 250.
 French, the, 103, 120, 162, 176,
 203, 205, 210, 211, 228, 233,
 248, 293.
 Frere, Sir Bartle, 16, 20, 21, 124,
 164, 168, 220.
 Froude, J. A., 20.
 Fugitives' Drift, 161.
 Fynbosch, the, 85, 161.

G.

Gaboon, 215.
 Gaika War, 20, 21, 24, 290.
 Galla, 216.
 Gamble, Mr., 39.
 Game, S. African, 97.
 Gamka, 72, 100.
 Gamtoos R., 68, 72, 144, 160.
 Garcias Pass, 128, 132.
 Gariep R., 69, 160.
 Gariepine Walls, 70.
 Gauritz R., 68, 72, 160.
 Gazaland, 209, 289, 326.
 Genadendal, 123, 131, 188.
 George Division, 101, 128.
 — Town, 128, 132, 157.
 German Protectorate,
 Germans in S. A., 24, 25, 124,
 125, 148, 150, 162, 164, 211,
 223, 271, 272.
 Gerusia, the, 295.
 Giants' Castle, 51.
 Gill, Dr., 147, 188.
 Gladstone, W. E., 249.
 Glasgow University, 147.
 Goa R., 312, 313.
 Gold, export of, 276, 277, 356.
 — Fields, 111, 241, 257, 263, 265,
 271, 272, 328.
 Gonubie R., 74.
 Gordon, Col., 232.
 — General Charles, 24, 295.
 — Bay, 22.
 Gordonia, 301.
 Goshen, 26, 254.
 Gough, the, 59, 160.
 Govan, Rev. W., 145.
 Governor's kop, 142.
 Graaf Reinet, 14, 59, 91, 100, 101,
 133, 134, 137, 138, 144, 157, 162,
 172, 187, 188, 243.
 Grahamstown, 103, 142, 158, 177,
 178, 187, 243.
 Granville, Earl, 41.
 Gray, Bishop, 178, 180, 188, 200.
 Green Point, 114, 151.
 Grey, Albert, 27.
 — Sir G., 104, 117.
 — Library, 117.
 Greyton, 129.
 Griqualand, East, 31, 53, 170, 171,
 288, 290, 291.

Griqualand, West, 19, 105, 109,
 154, 155, 225.
 Groote or Great R., 72.
 'Grosvenor, The,' 40.
 Gunaap, 71.
 Guano, Cape, 222, 223.
 Gungunhama, 321, 326, 328, 329.

H.

Habana, 137.
 Habitans, Canadian, 203.
 Halley, 39.
 Hamburg, 247.
 Hancumqua, 314.
 Hankey, 144, 158.
 Hanno, 1.
 Hanoas Mt., 53.
 Hanover, 147, 148.
 Hantams, 50, 71, 123, 232.
 Hanyani R., 327.
 Harmattan, the, 38.
 Harris, Capt., 97, 275.
 Harrismith, 50, 281.
 Hartley, 317, 320, 328.
 Harz R., 301.
 Havelock, Sir A., 297.
 Hebron, 157.
 Heemraad, the, 198.
 Heidelberg, 129, 189, 225, 270.
 Heilbron, 281.
 Henry of Portugal, 2.
 Herero, 290.
 Herité, M., 151.
 Herschel, Sir J., 39, 116, 183.
 Herschel (division), 148, 149, 162.
 Hex R. Mt., 52, 72.
 — Valley, 50, 121.
 Hindoos, 287.
 Hintza, 16.
 'Hoek,' 161.
 Hofmeyr, J., 220.*
 Holland, 11, 22.
 Hollanders, 213.
 Holub, 80.
 'Homeward Bound,' the, 88.
 Hondeklip Bay, 41.
 Hoogeveltdt, 60.
 'Hoop, The,' 6.
 Hoopstadt, 281.
 Hope Shoals, 46.
 Hopetown, 70, 135.
 Höpfner, Dr., 125.

Horses, Cape, 231, 232, 363.
 Hottentots, 125, 129, 147, 160,
 170, 208, 215, 226, 242, 286,
 287.
 — Holland, 120.
 Hout Bay, 42.
 Houtman, Cornelius, 4.
 Houwhoek, 53.
 Howick, 262.
 Hudson R., 113.
 Huguenots, 9, 18, 113, 120, 162,
 210, 227, 233.
 Huilla, 320.
 Humansdorp, 144.
 Hut-tax (native), 238, 266, 283,
 296.

I.

Ibo, 327.
 Ibose, 247.
 Icebergs, 39.
 Ichaboe I., 41, 222.
 Idutywa Reserve, 290, 291.
 Imports, Cape, 235.
 Inanda, 259, 263.
 India, 313.
 Indian immigrants, 257, 262, 287.
 Indians, Red, 110, 287.
 Indwe, 74, 224.
 Ingeli Mt., 52.
 Ingogo, 23, 75, 262.
 Inhambane, 247, 311, 327.
 Inyack I., 46.
 Inyack Pen., 46, 48.
 Isandlwana, 21, 75, 214, 265.
 Isipingo, 213, 267.
 Ixopo, 258, 259.
 Iyulu R., 76.

J.

Jacob's Cove, 123.
 Jacobstadt, 281.
 Jagersfontein, 282.
 James I., 7, 8.
 James of Mallorca, 2.
 Jansenville, 144.
 Jesuits, 113, 117.
 Johannesburg, 270, 273, 274, 275.
 John, King of Portugal, 1.
 Jones, Prof. Rupert, 225.
 Jordan, 211.
 Joubert, 211.
 Juta, 59.

K.

Kabiskow, 50.
 Kaffir Kuils R., 128.
 Kaffirs, 16, 73, 109, 113, 117, 136,
 140, 146, 163, 170, 208, 246.
 Kaffraria, 16, 36, 40, 60, 104, 256.
 Kaiser Wilhelm Fields, 317.
 Kalahari, the, 38, 55, 68, 81, 126,
 132, 287, 301.
 Kalk Bay, 42, 118, 157.
 Kamahereros, 25, 124.
 Kamastone, 208.
 Kamiesbergen, 50.
 Kannaland, 53.
 Kariega R., 72.
 Karroo, the Great, 49, 58, 59, 68,
 72, 132, 137, 229.
 Karroos, 57, 81, 160.
 Kat R., 72, 136, 147, 170.
 Katberg, 62, 64.
 Kearnsey estate, 263.
 Keeromberg, 52.
 Kei R., 44, 74.
 Keiskamma, 74, 150, 160.
 — hoek, 149, 158.
 Kenhardt, 136.
 Kentani, 290.
 Khama, 26, 303, 304, 319.
 Khamas country, 29, 68, 92, 289,
 298, 304.
 Khoi Khoi, the, 286.
 Kilimanjaro, 51.
 Kimberley, 152, 153, 158, 162,
 164, 201, 224, 240, 243.
 King W. Town, 64, 104, 148, 158,
 171.
 Klerksdorp, 271, 276.
 Klip R., 258, 260, 273.
 Knysna Gold Fields, 224.
 — Harbour, 43, 47, 72, 89.
 — R., 72.
 — the district, 35, 55, 81, 84, 85,
 90, 98, 126, 128, 157, 226.
 Kodas, 121.
 Kok, Adam, 280.
 Kokstad, 291.
 Kolobeng, 303.
 Komati Poort, 279, 360.
 'Kopje,' 161.
 Koranna, 160, 301.
 Kosi R., 46, 77, 298.
 Kowie R., 38, 43, 72, 86, 143.

'Kraal,' 161.
 Kreli, 16, 290.
 Kromme R., 43, 71, 144.
 Koonap R., 73.
 Kroonstadt, 281.
 Kruisfontein, 146.
 Kuaga, chief, 137.

L.

La Perouse, 210.
 La Rochette, 14.
 Labillardiere, 210.
 Labour market, 246.
 Ladismith, 50, 128, 262.
 Lady Frere, 149, 162.
 Lady Grey, 129, 149, 162.
 Ladybrand, 281, 282.
 Lake Chrissie, 225.
 Lakes, S. African, 81.
 Lambert Bay, 41, 123.
 Landdrosts, 14, 198, 199.
 'Lands,' 68.
 Langbergen, 53, 71, 126, 127.
 Langkloof, 53, 137.
 Langnek, 23, 53, 75, 262.
 Law, books of, 195.
 Lawyers (Cape), 193.
 Le Sueur, 211.
 Le Vaillant, 14, 97, 211, 253.
 Lebombo Mt., 51, 269, 273, 279.
 Leopold, King, 25.
 Leribe, 293.
 Lerothodi, 293.
 Lewis, Mr., 124.
 Lichtensburg, 270.
 Lichtenstein, 272.
 Limpopo R., 33, 51, 68, 77, 78, 91,
 97, 269, 274, 288, 298.
 Linschoten, 4, 313.
 Lisbon, 34, 312.
 Livingstone, David, 38, 55, 78,
 146, 299, 304, 317.
 Livius Sanutus, 311.
 Loan Farms, 103, 133.
 Loangwa R., 308.
 Lobengula, 26, 29, 305, 306, 310,
 316, 328.
 Loch, Sir H., 164.
 Locke, John, 165.
 London Missionary Society, 144,
 145, 146.
 'Long' case, 200.

Longwe, 51.
 Lourenzo Marques, 269, 279, 297.
 Lovedale, 145, 188, 193.
 Lowry's Pass, 132.
 Luneberg, 271.
 Lunte R., 308, 324.
 Lupata rapids, 315.
 Luthorans, 179, 181.
 Lydenburg, 270, 272.
 Lyons, 228.

M.

Mababi, 303.
 Macartney, Earl, 207, 230.
 Mackenzie, 26.
 Maclear, Sir Th., 207.
 MacLoutsie R., 269, 325.
 Macmaha, Marshal, 278.
 Macmurdo, 279.
 Macomo, 16.
 Madagascar, 312.
 Madras Presidency, 60.
 Mafeking, 240, 276, 302.
 Mafeteng, 293.
 Magaliesberg, 52, 77, 275.
 Magellan, Ferdinand, 3, 218, 310.
 Magistrate, Resident, 200.
 Majuba, 23, 75, 262.
 Makalaka, 303, 305, 316.
 Makoon, 215.
 Malabar Coast, 3.
 Malacca, 312.
 Malay Archipelago, 113.
 Malays, 113, 117, 178, 170, 218,
 226, 287.
 Malmmani, 276.
 Malmesbury, 123, 157, 187, 228,
 229.
 Maluti Mt., 69, 70, 292.
 Mamre, 123, 157.
 Manhattan, the, 113.
 Manicaland, 30, 289, 308, 309,
 326.
 Mankoroane, 26, 301.
 Maoris, 163, 287.
 Maputa R., 308.
 Marabastad, 276.
 'Marichal, the,' 176.
 Marico, 77, 78, 270.
 — R., 77.
 Maritzburg, 177.
 Marter, Major, 21.

- Martinus Martini, 313.
 Masarwas, 304.
 Mashonaland, 29, 30, 34, 46, 51,
 68, 87, 111, 163, 177, 240, 272,
 289, 303, 307.
 Mashonas, 305.
 Massi Kessi, 309, 325, 326.
 Masubias, 304.
 Matabili Plains, 316.
 Matabililand, 30, 34, 52, 68, 209,
 289, 303, 304, 305.
 Matewane, 74.
 Matjesfontein, 136.
 Matoppo Mt., 52, 77, 306, 329.
 Matriculation, Cape, 189.
 Mauchs Berg, 274, 317.
 Maund, Lieut., 305, 320.
 Mauritius, 166, 226.
 Mayne Reid, 97.
 Mazeppa Bay, 44.
 Mazoo, 308, 315, 328.
 Mecca, 118, 218.
 Meirings Poort, 49.
 Melinda, 3, 312.
 Melville, 21.
 'Merchants, Sonior,' 166.
 Merino Sheep, 232.
 Merriman, Hon. J. X., 293, 294.
 Methuen Settlement, 302.
 Metropolitan, the, 177.
 Meurant's Park, 128.
 Middelberg, 270.
 Ministries, Cape, 168, 172.
 Mission, French Protestant, 181,
 293, 296.
 — London, 179.
 — Rhenish, 179, 181.
 — Stations, 145, 146, 180, 181, 252.
 Moffatt, 26, 299, 329.
 Moghabi, 317.
 Mogokane, 69.
 Mohalis Hoek, 293.
 Mohammedans, 268.
 Mohr, Eduard, 80.
 Molappo, 292.
 Molenaar, Jan de, 4.
 Molesworth, Sir W., 249.
 Molopo R., 298.
 Molteno, 20, 53, 62, 224.
 Monjon, 215.
 Monomotapa, 311, 313, 314.
 Mont aux Sources, 51, 69, 70.
 Montagu, 128, 157.
 — Pass, 49.
 — Road, 59.
 Montpelier, 228.
 Montsioa, 26.
 Moodie, 273.
 Moors, 255, 263, 310.
 Moravians, 123, 131, 146, 197, 252.
 Moremis Country, 55.
 Morija Mt., 293.
 Moroka, 281.
 Morrell, 222.
 Moselikatze, 215.
 Mosenthal, 234.
 Moshesh, 24.
 Mossamedes, 50, 126, 320, 325.
 Mossel Bay, 43, 49, 126, 127, 129,
 135, 157, 161.
 Mount Ayliff, 52.
 — Bismarek, 317.
 — Currie, 52.
 — Frere, 52, 75, 291.
 — Hampden, 325.
 — Molkte, 317.
 — Sullivan, 54.
 — Thesiger, 54.
 Mowbray, 118, 157.
 Mozambique, 3, 215, 255, 278, 311,
 312, 325.
 — Current, 37, 127, 256.
 Municipalities, 174.
 Murchison Range, 276.
 Murraysburg, 135.
 Musgrave, Major, 124.
 Muta Nzige, 293.
 Mutassa, 309, 325, 326.
 Mydrecht, Lord of, 197, 198.

 N.
 Naacht-Maal, 130, 180.
 Naauw Poort, 53, 136, 141.
 Namaqualand, 20, 64, 104, 286.
 Nantes, Edict of, 120.
 Napier, 128.
 Naples, 91.
 Napoleon, Emperor, 12, 13.
 Natal, 3, 17, 18, 29, 30, 31, 33, 36,
 62, 87, 89, 90, 102, 218, 241, 246,
 247, 255, 280, 312.
 'Nautilus, the,' 139.
 Nels Poort, 50, 53, 59, 65.
 Nelson, Admiral, 272.

'Neptune, the,' 18.
 Newcastle, 79, 75, 258, 260, 263, 271.
 New England, 113.
 Newlands, 118.
 New Plymouth, 138.
 New South Wales, 229.
 New York, 114.
 New Zealand, 110, 159, 234, 236.
 Ngami Lake, 55, 56, 79, 81, 91, 320.
 Niagara, 80.
 Nieuwveldt Mt., 50, 51, 53, 59, 132.
 Nile, the, 54, 81, 91, 317.
 Nilsen, 88.
 'Noord, the,' 138.
 North, Lord, 12.
 Norway, 84.
 Notwane, 78.
 Nuanetsi, 78, 323.
 Nyassaland, 29.

O.

Oates, Frank, 80.
 Observatory, Cape, 116.
 Ocean, the Indian, 76, 85, 257.
 Office, Deeds Registry, 207.
 — Surveyor General's, 207.
 Okavango R., 56, 126, 320.
 Olifants R. east, 72.
 — R. Mt., 52, 71, 161, 275.
 Olsen, Capt., 88.
 Ongeluk's Nek, 53.
 Onyali, 50.
 O'okiep, 121, 125, 157, 158, 223.
 Oorlog's poort, 69.
 Oosthuysen's Farm, 137.
 Opgraaf Book, 202.
 Opstal, the, 202.
 Orange Free State, 17, 29, 30, 32,
 33, 59, 87, 149, 153, 240, 279.
 — R., 17, 24, 41, 50, 69, 70, 74,
 125.
 Ordinance, the Cradoek, 202.
 O'Reilly, John, 151.
 Orion's belt, 218.
 Osorio, 255.
 Ostriches, 235, 347.
 Oswell, 55.
 Otyiherero, 50.
 Otzibingue, 125.
 Oudemolen Farm, 21, 116.
 Oudshoorn, 83, 104, 127, 128,
 157, 162, 188, 201.

Outeniqua Mt., 36, 53, 128.
 Outspans, 94, 173.
 Ovaherero, 289.
 Ovampoland, 30, 33, 125, 286.
 Oukraal, 208.

P.

Paarl, 9, 99, 104, 119, 157, 188,
 201, 228.
 Pacaltsdorp, 129.
 Palatswie, 303, 304.
 Palgrave, C., 124.
 Pearston, 147.
 Peddie, 144.
 Pella, 136.
 Perie Bush, 74.
 — Mt., 66, 86.
 Philippa of Lancaster, 2.
 Philippopolis, 281.
 Phoenicians, 2.
 Phylloxera, the, 228.
 Piet Retief, 270.
 Pieter Maritzburg, 50, 259, 260,
 261, 262, 266.
 Pinetown, 262.
 Pinto, Major Serpa, 80, 327.
 Piquotberg, 104, 123, 231.
 Piton, 211.
 'Pitso, the,' 295, 300.
 'Platz, a,' 161.
 Plettenberg, Governor, 133, 162.
 — Bay, 43, 126, 226.
 Plymouth, 8.
 Point Padrone, 161.
 Polo ponies, 232.
 Pondoland, 32, 34, 36, 268, 288, 291.
 Pondomesi, 291.
 Pongolo R., 77.
 'Poort,' a, 72, 161.
 Population, Cape, 31, 32, 33.
 — distribution of, 10.
 — Natal, 258.
 — O. F. S., 289.
 — Transvaal, 269.
 Port Adelaide, 229.
 — Alfred, 43, 72, 143, 162.
 — Beaufort, 126, 128.
 — Durnford, 45.
 — Elizabeth, 16, 72, 85, 89, 103,
 129, 134, 137, 140, 141, 144, 158,
 162, 187, 201, 240, 241.
 — Natal, 44, 45, 257, 258.

Port Nolloth, 35, 41, 64, 89, 223, 299.
 Porter, Mr., 170.
 Porterville, 123.
 Portuguese, the, 1, 2, 3, 4, 160, 164, 214, 244, 255, 263, 273, 279, 308, 311, 312.
 Post Office, Cape, 242.
 Potberg Mt., 54.
 Potchefstroom, 269, 270, 271.
 Potgieter, 271.
 Potsdam, 148, 162.
 Presbyterians, Scotch, 177, 179.
 Pretoria, 23, 92, 177, 269, 270.
 Prieska, 136.
 Prince Albert (district), 30, 100, 135, 157, 162, 224, 231.
 Pringle, 140, 167.
 Proteae, 85.
 Protestants, 113, 176, 285, 293.
 Providential Gorge, 324.
 Provinces, Electoral, 104, 105, 106.
 Pungwe R., 46, 244, 247, 301, 309, 310, 325.

Q.

Qora, 160.
 Quathlamba Mt., 51, 69, 70, 74, 225, 292.
 Quebec, 103, 114, 203.
 Queenstown, 104, 149, 158, 162, 225.
 Quillimane, 247, 315, 327.
 Quiloea, 311, 312.
 Quit rent, 204.
 Quthing, 293.

R.

Railways, Cape, 239, 240, 241.
 — Natal, 266, 356, 357.
 Rainfall, Cape, 60, 61, 63.
 Ramoquaban R., 305.
 Reitz, Chief Justice, 172.
 — Mr., 233.
 'Reliance, the,' 233.
 Renders, 317.
 Republic, the New, 254.
 Republics, the Dutch, 269.
 Representation, Parl., 106, 109.
 Responsible Government, 167.
 Revenue, Basutoland, 296.
 — Cape, 236, 347, 348.
 — Natal, 265.

Revenue, O. F. S., 280.
 — Transvaal, 277.
 Rhenish Mission, 124.
 Rhodes, C., 27, 319, 326.
 Richmond, 93, 104, 135, 157.
 'Rieger, the,' 6.
 Rifles, C. M. R., 291.
 Rio Infante, 314.
 Riparia, the, 228.
 Riversdale, 104, 126, 128, 157.
 Robben Bay, 41.
 — Island, 114.
 Robertson, 72, 128, 157, 228.
 Robinson, Sir H., 22.
 Roggeveldt, 50, 59.
 Rondebosch, 118, 157.
 Rorke's Drift, 21, 75, 265.
 Ross, Donald, 187, 192.
 Rouxville, 281.
 Rustenberg (Cape), 82.
 — (Transvaal), 269, 270.

S.

Sabi R., 46, 51, 68, 308, 310.
 Sadza, 51.
 Sahara, 55.
 St. Blaize, 161.
 St. Croix, 1, 43, 160.
 St. Francis, 161.
 St. Helena Bay, 41, 46, 71, 123, 161.
 St. Helena I., 114, 177.
 St. John's R., 45, 75, 177, 291.
 St. Lawrence, Island of, 312.
 St. Lawrence R., 102, 203.
 St. Lucia Bay, 45, 76, 77.
 St. Matthew's Mission Station, 150.
 St. Paul's Mission Station, 76.
 St. Sebastian Bay, 42, 127.
 Saldanha Bay, 41, 47, 160, 162.
 Salt, Titus, 234.
 San, the, 286.
 Sandown Bay, 42.
 Sandwich Harbour, 41, 125.
 Saron, 123.
 Savings' Banks, 243.
 Scab, the, 227.
 Scanlen Cabinet, 172.
 Schalk van Niekerk, 19, 151.
 Schiet Nek, 53.
 Schmidt, George, 131.
 Scholarchs, 183.

- Scholarships, 190, 191.
 School Ordinance, 183.
 Schools, Cape, 185, 186, 187.
 'Scot,' the, 247.
 Scott, Sir G. Gilbert, 143.
 Sea Point, 114.
 Seal Bay, 41.
 Secunde, the, 165, 166, 197.
 Seigneurs, the, 103.
 Sekukuni, 22, 23.
 Selkirk settlers, 140.
 Selous, 60, 78, 80, 82, 97, 303,
 316, 320, 325, 326.
 Selous Camp, 51.
 Sena, 315.
 Separatists, the, 182.
 Serrurier, 211.
 Setlagoli, 302.
 Settlers of 1820, 103, 138, 139.
 Seymour, 147.
 Shasha R., 78, 305.
 Sheba, Queen of, 317.
 — Mount, 273.
 Sheep, Cape, 234.
 — Spanish, 233.
 Shepstone, Sir Th., 23, 270.
 Shillinge, Andrew, 7.
 Shipping, Natal, 257, 353.
 Shiré R., 29, 78, 310, 315.
 Shoshong, 303, 304.
 Sibbiton's Drift, 56.
 Sigcau, 292.
 Simonstown, 18, 42, 118, 157.
 Slang R., 75.
 Slaves, 17, 113, 176, 201.
 Sluysken, 12.
 Smith, 97.
 Smith, Sir H., 280.
 Smyrna, 246.
 Sneeuwbergen, 72, 73, 134.
 Snowdon, 62.
 Sofala, 46, 310, 311, 312.
 Somerset, Lord Charles, 124, 134,
 142, 162, 183, 212, 231, 233.
 Somerset East, 101, 146, 158, 162.
 — West, 53, 120, 157, 162.
 Somerville, 299.
 Somoto, 324.
 Sordwana, 76.
 Southampton, 246.
 South-easter, the, 37.
 'Sovereignty, the,' 102, 280.
 Sparrmann, 14, 97, 98, 114, 133,
 201, 251, 253, 286.
 Spektakel, 121.
 Spirito Santo R., 314.
 Spitz kop, 274.
 Sprigg, Sir G., 20.
 — Cabinet, 172.
 Springbok fontein, 121, 223.
 'Spruit,' 161.
 'Stadt,' 161.
 Stadtholder, the, 11.
 Standerton, 70, 270.
 Stanford, 129.
 Stanford, Mr., 171.
 Stanger, 263, 288.
 Stanley, H. M., 317.
 Star of South Africa, 19, 151.
 Stavenisse, the, 256.
 Stellaland, 26, 254.
 Stellenbosch, 9, 100, 101, 104,
 119, 143, 157, 182.
 Sterkstroom, 149.
 Stewart, Dr., 145, 146.
 Stockenstrom, Commandant, 137.
 — (district), 147, 170.
 Stormberg, 51, 62, 134, 149.
 Struis Bay, 42.
 Stutterheim, 148, 162.
 Suez Canal, the, 42, 253.
 Sugar Loaf Hill, 53.
 Sunday R., 72, 137, 144.
 Supply, the, 233.
 Surridge, Rev. F., 321.
 Sutherland, 136.
 Sutherland, Mr., 272.
 Suzerainty, British, 23, 25.
 Swahili, 215.
 Swazieland, 23, 29, 30, 32, 34, 164,
 269, 271, 274, 276, 289, 297, 298.
 Sweden, 84.
 Swellendam, 14, 72, 84, 100, 126,
 128, 137, 138, 157.
 Swinburne, Sir J., 304.
 Switzerland, 23.
 Sydney, 229, 233.
 Synod, Dutch, 182.
 — of Dort, 175.
 Syro-Egyptian Society, 215.

 T.
 Table Bay, 3, 10, 34, 38, 42, 47, 92,
 94, 112, 114, 257.

Table Mt., 34, 35, 38, 41, 54, 62,
 Tachard, Father, 177.
 Tafelberg, 161, 274.
 Tambookies, 148.
 Tancred, Sir Th., 279.
 Tarka, 101, 142.
 — R., 74.
 Tarkastad, 91, 147.
 Tati Gold Fields, 272, 304, 305,
 320.
 Taungs, 301.
 Tea, Natal, 263, 264, 358.
 Telegraphs, Cape, 244, 245.
 Tembuland, 31, 74, 75, 105, 109,
 170, 288, 290, 291.
 Tennyson, 149.
 Tette, 78, 315.
 Thaba Bossigo, 292, 295.
 Theal, G. M., 31, 33, 59, 250, 251.
 64, 65, 84, 94, 114.
 Thlotse Heights, 293.
 Thompson, Dr. Symes, 91.
 Thornton, John, 312.
 Thunberg, 14, 98, 114, 253.
 Tokwani, 324.
 Tokwe R., 324.
 Tongaati R., 75.
 Tongaland, 164, 289, 297.
 Tongas, the, 111.
 Touws R., 72.
 Trade, Natal, 263.
 Tradouw Pass, 53, 132.
 Trafalgar, 12.
 Transkei, 31, 74, 105, 146, 159, 170,
 288, 290, 291.
 Transvaal, the, 17, 29, 30, 31, 33,
 68, 241, 269, 270.
 — War, 22, 270.
 Trek, the Mashonaland, 320, 321.
 Trekking, 252.
 Tristan d'Acunha, 178.
 Troglodytes, 287.
 Trollope, Anthony, 128.
 Truter, 299.
 Tslambies, 291.
 Tsomo R., 74.
 Tugela R., 45, 75, 76, 259, 288.
 Tulbagh, 122, 162, 229.
 Tuli R., 308, 320, 321, 325.
 Twin Mountain, 54.
 Tyali, 16.
 Tylden's Pass, 53.

U.

Uitenhage, 101, 143, 144, 158.
 Ulundi, 17, 21, 76, 249.
 Umfuli, 327.
 Umgane Mt., 274.
 Umgwase, 297.
 Umkomansi, 75.
 Umlatoosi, 76.
 Umlazi, 75, 259.
 Umloti, 75.
 Umquikela, 291, 292.
 Umsinga Company, 258, 259.
 Umtata R., 75.
 Umvoti, 75, 258, 260.
 Umzila's Reich, 289.
 Umziligas, 316.
 Umzilikatze, 306.
 Umzimkulu, 45, 75, 160.
 Umzimvubu, 75, 160.
 Umzingwan R., 308, 322.
 Union Company, 246, 247.
 Uniondale, 129.
 'United Empire Loyalists,' 137.
 'United South Africa,' 172.
 University, Cape, 184, 189.
 Uppington, 172.
 Utrecht, 75, 270, 271.

V.

Vaal R., 22, 59, 70, 151, 152, 157, 269.
 Van Breda, 233.
 Van der Stoll, 9, 82, 223, 227.
 Van Kaarden, 161.
 Van Reenen's Cove, 41.
 — Pass, 50, 51, 53, 282.
 Van Riebeck, 6, 82, 176, 227, 313.
 'Veldt, the,' 93.
 Veldtschoens, 250.
 Venice, 311.
 Verulam, 262, 267.
 Viceroy, Portuguese, 312.
 Victoria, Queen, 27, 162, 263.
 — Company (Natal), 259, 263.
 — East, 162.
 — Falls, 29, 78, 91, 272.
 — West, 62, 104, 133, 135, 162.
 Vienna, 193.
 Vigi Magna, 70, 314.
 Village Management Boards, 174.
 Vines, 227, 228.
 Virginian Settlements, 9.
 Visagie, 211.

Vleis, 81, 161.
 Voer-trekkers, 201, 203, 217, 253,
 280, 320.
 Volksraad, the, 284, 285.
 Volunteers, Cape, 219.
 — Natal, 267.
 Von Buch, 272.
 Voters, native, 105, 109, 110, 170,
 171, 337, 338.
 Vryburg, 240, 302.
 Vryheid, 270, 297.
 W.
 Wakkerstrom, 270.
 Walker Bay, 42.
 — Point, 42.
 Walts R., 69.
 Walvisch Bay, 40, 53, 78, 124, 125,
 299.
 Warren, Sir C., 26, 57, 65, 66, 298,
 299, 301, 319.
 Warrenton, 157, 158, 162.
 Waschbank, 51.
 Waterberg, 52, 62, 64, 270.
 Waterboer, 153.
 Waterloo, Battle of, 139.
 — Bay, 44.
 Watermeyer, Judge, 196, 252.
 Wazimba, 290.
 Wedza, 51.
 Weenen, 260, 262.
 Wellington, 120, 157, 188.
 Wepener, 281.
 Wesleyans, 149, 177, 179, 180, 181.
 Wesselton, 157.
 Whale fisheries, 7, 227.
 Wheat, Cape, 229, 344, 345.
 Willowmore, 135.
 Willowvale, 290.
 Winburg, 281, 282.
 Winchester, 143, 188.
 Winsloe, 271.
 Winterberg, 16, 144.
 Winterhoek, 52, 72, 122.
 Witenagemot, 295.
 Witte Riviere, 137.
 Witwatersrand, 51, 77, 271, 275.
 Wodehouse, 104, 149, 162, 229.

Wodehouse, Sir P., 24, 151, 162, 294.
 Wolseley, Lord, 21, 23, 221, 271,
 272, 297.
 Woodstock, 114, 157.
 Wool, Cape, 232, 346.
 Worcester, 83, 101, 104, 121, 132,
 157, 162, 188, 228, 231.
 Wybrand, 6.
 Wynberg, 118, 157.

X.

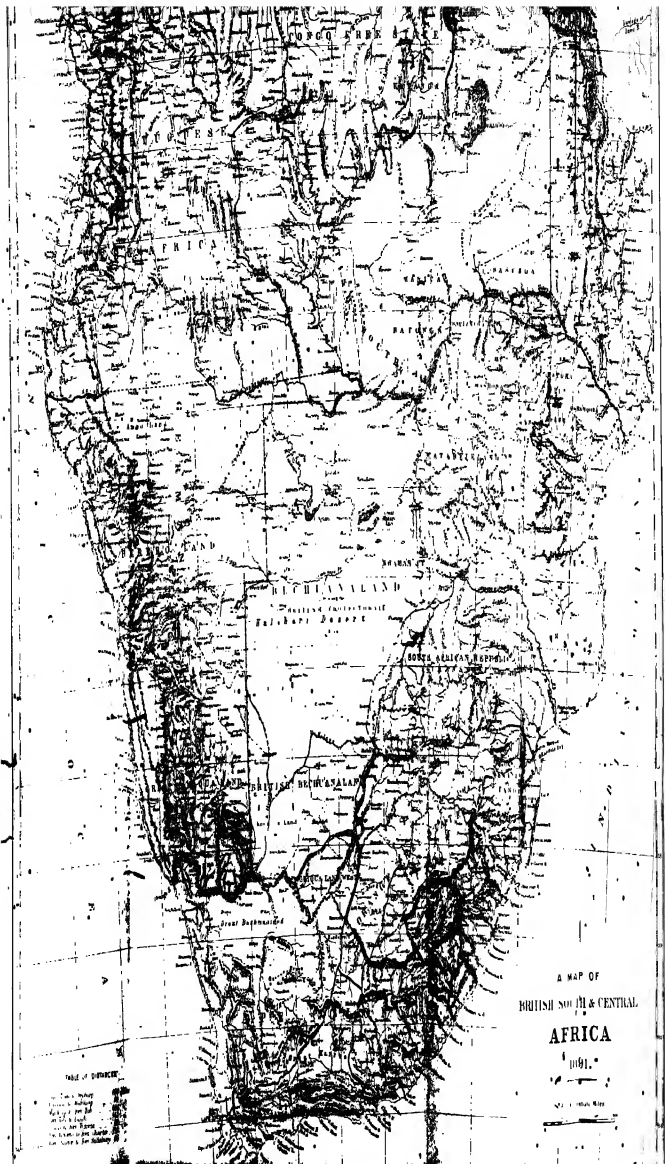
Xanthium spinosum, 233.
 Xesibe, 29.
 Xlammi, 160.
 Xosa, 288.

Y.

York, Duke of, 137.

Z.

Zambesi, 28, 46, 51, 54, 68, 78, 79,
 91, 155, 163, 241, 244, 145, 289,
 314, 315.
 Zambesia, 29, 78, 302.
 Zambili, 297.
 Zanzibar Boys, 111, 117.
 Zekoe R., 70, 133.
 Zemzem, 118.
 Zimbabye, 311, 317, 318, 324.
 Zinbaach, 311, 317.
 Zitzikamma, 36, 43, 96.
 Zoar, 131.
 Zonnebloem, 116.
 Zoutspanberg, 269, 270, 272, 276.
 Zulu Reserves, 116.
 — War, 76, 249, 296.
 Zululand, 29, 30, 34, 164, 177, 261,
 269, 270, 289, 296.
 Zulus, 21, 290, 315.
 Zumbo, 78.
 Zuurborg, 36, 38, 52, 72, 137, 142,
 144.
 Zuurbak, 131.
 Zuurveldt, 137.
 Zwager's Hoek, 147.
 Zwarte Ruggens, 134, 144.
 Zwartebergen, 52, 59, 72, 131.
 Zwartkops R., 100, 138, 172.



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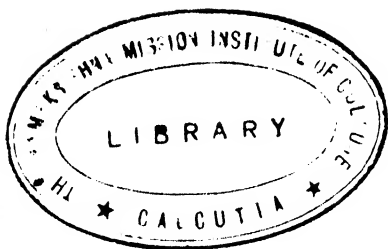
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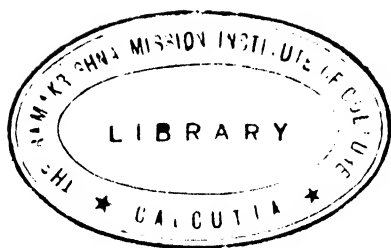
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